Title: Cross–cultural communication in Thai EFL university classrooms: a case study

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A Case Study

by

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ABSTRACT

In the past few decades there has been increased communication among people of diverse cultural backgrounds. Greater internationalisation of education has contributed to academic interest in cross–cultural communication. Thailand is considered an'English as a Foreign Language' (EFL) country in which English is mandatory curriculum subject at primary, secondary, college and university levels. Thai education policy has aimed at improving Thai students' English proficiency by hiring more native English speakers to teach at schools and universities. Moreover, having had native English lecturers teaching in Thai universities provides opportunities for Thai students to communicate across cultures. From a social–cultural perspective, this study investigated how native English lecturers and Thai students apply cross–cultural communication strategies within real interactional contexts in the Thai EFL classroom. This research aims to improve communication between native English lecturers, Thai lecturers and non–native English students or Thai students through the use of effective cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classroom. This study used a mixed–qualitative–methods design (Mason, 2006) which was composed of interviews, classroom observations and video recordings of classroom teachings. This methodology was chosen in order to allow the researcher an integrated and clearer understanding of what was happening in the Thai EFL classroom. The case study approach was used to investigate one small department within one university (Denscombe, 2010) to allow the researcher to explore in–depth exchanges arising from teacher–student communication phenomena (Yin, 2009). Using socio–cultural theory developed by Engeström and different themes that emerged from various taxononomies as frameworks, the findings from this research revealed that native English lecturers,

Thai lecturers, and Thai students employed various cross–cultural communication strategies including communication strategies derived from Tarone's (1977; 1983), Willems'(1997), and Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) taxonomy of communication strategies. Additionally, simple pedagogical strategies applied by the lecturers played significant roles in enabling Thai students to maintain the conversations as well as boosting confidence in English speaking while having less fear of interacting with the lecturer in the Thai EFL classroom. Furthermore, the findings suggest that both native English and Thai lecturers have to be aware of and sensitive to Thai students' cultural aspects, their nature and behaviours expressed in the Thai EFL classroom in order to encourage these students to respond or speak up. Besides, the application of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies are perceived as necessary tools for the Thai EFL teachers and students. As a result of this research, an original taxonomy of effective communication strategies is proposed to be used by both teachers and students in cross–cultural EFL classroom contexts.

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of University of Bedfordshire.

It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university.

Name of candidate : MS.SATIP KUESOONGNERN

Signature:

Date: July, 26th 2018

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations.
CA	Conversation Analysis
CCC / CCC(s)	Cross–cultural communication strategy / Cross–cultural communication strategies
CS / CS(s)	Communication strategy / Communication strategies
DA	Discourse Analysis
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
HE	Higher Education
IBM	International Business Machines Corporation
IND	Indulgence
IDV	Individualism
IPA	Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis
L1	The native language or Thai
L2	The second language or English
L3	The third language or other language
LTO	Long term orientation
MAS	Masculinity
NERF	National Educational Research Forum

NL	Native language
OBEC	The Office of Basic Education Commission
PD/ PDI	Power distance/ Power distance index
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TL	Target language
UAI	Uncertainty avoidance index

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background and rationale for this research into the study of cross–cultural communication in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Classroom in a Thai university. There are six sections in the chapter: section 1.1 justifies reasons and purposes in conducting the study, section 1.2 provides the history of English language in Thailand from past to present, section 1.3 discusses the history of teaching English as a foreign language in Thailand as well as the Thai Education Act (1999) which had great influence on the Thai educational system and education reform. In section 1.4, the Thai higher education system (HE) is described, as are the English courses taken by Thai students in the research university. Section 1.5 poses the research questions for the investigation. Section 1.6 provides significance of this study. The chapter concludes with the structure and organisation of this thesis.

1.1 Background or rationale for this study

According to Anchimbe (2006), the search for native English speakers is high in many EFL countries. That is because English is learned in schools, used in education related careers, and in certain formal situations related international businesses. By 'native English speaker' is meant a speaker who has come from a country where English is the national language. As English in Thailand is taught in school, it is used mainly in formal situations and in education related jobs. Thailand is considered an 'English as a Foreign Language' country in which English is a mandatory curriculum subject at primary, secondary, college and university levels. Thai education policy has aimed at improving Thai students' English proficiency by hiring more native English speakers to teach at schools. As stated by the Education Minister, Dr. Suchat Thadathamrongvech (The House of Representatives, 2012), government policy has supported the recruitment of native English speakers to teach at schools, colleges and universities throughout

Thailand which would be overseen by the Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC). The role of the OBEC is responsible for policy creation and control of schools in Thailand (Tiaochae, 2012). The policy leads to more provision of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) job opportunities for foreigners in Thai education.

Having taught in Naresuan University for almost two years, I have found that encouraging students to express their opinions in class is considered an issue, since Thai students do not generally like to express their feelings and initiate their opinions as much as they should do in class. Many students remain quiet when teachers ask them to contribute to the discussions. As stated by Adamson (2005), silence can be viewed as a feature of Thai students' behaviour in the classroom. This leads to a cultural misunderstanding of Thai learners being passive, yet it is the way Thai people show respect to seniors or authorities. According to Pawapatcharaudom (2007), communication anxiety in language classroom has a major effect on students' learning. Of importance to this study, students tend to communicate and try to convey their own understanding by applying non–verbal language, for example, using hand gestures. Sometimes, students also try to describe what they actually mean and create new words from their own thoughts. The following research arises from these experiences.

The aim of this study is to improve communication between native English lecturers and non–native English students through the use of effective cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom. To improve communication between native English lecturers and non–native English students, it is necessary to investigate how native English lecturers and Thai students use cross–cultural communication strategies within real interactional contexts in the Thai EFL classroom as well as identifying a range of cross–cultural communication strategies occurring in the Thai EFL classroom that support effective communication.

According to Cervantes and Rodriguez (2012) teaching communication strategies to students is essential, yet EFL teachers are not aware of this. Zheng (2004)

suggests that communication strategies are practicable and to some extent inevitable for language learners to use in their oral communication. These strategies can enhance language learners' confidence, flexibility, and effectiveness in oral communication. Therefore the strategies should be explicitly applied by teachers and students for more effective teaching and learning in the classroom.

Furthermore, Somsai (2011) states that the Communication Strategies (CSs) are mainly applied by the second language (L2) learners when a message is insufficient of linguistic or sociolinguistic understanding. Cook (1993, p.133) asserts that "…there are no standardized lists of communication strategies", although new taxonomies have been developed and proposed from time to time. Moreover, Chunlan (2008) claims that the notions of communication strategies which have been widely studied and regarded as the basis for many previous research projects on communication strategies (CS), were derived from Tarone (1983) and Bialystok (1990).

According to Westbrook *et al.* (2013), pedagogic strategies or teacher strategies are perceived as tools in teaching and learning contexts as they provide disposition towards teaching and learning. These strategies are a concrete expression of teachers or lecturers' approach, requiring, for example, students to feel secure or safe, as well as encouraging students' engagement in classrooms. As suggested by Siraj-Blatchford *et al.* (2002), pedagogic strategies empower or enable learning to emerge, give chances for knowledge acquisition, viewpoints, skill and trend under material and social contexts.

The findings of this research will inform cross–cultural communication strategies (CCC(s)) used by native English lecturers, Thai lecturers and non–native English students (Thai students), their motives regarding the selection of CCC(s) during conversations and communications in the Thai EFL classrooms. As part of this research, the application of CCC(s) by teachers and students was analysed using Tarone (1983)'s CS taxonomies. Also, pictures of real interactional Thai EFL classroom settings were described and portrayed by an adoption of Engeström

(1999a)'s activity theory and Vygotsky (1978)'s sociocultural theory for the research framework.

1.2 The history of English language in Thailand

According to Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011), the growth of the British colonial Empire in Southeast Asia in the18th century included the introduction of 'English' to the region. They also claimed that after Singapore, Penang, and Malacca received independence from the British Empire, the influence of the English language and the culture embedded within it remained. As well as into former colonial countries such as Malaysia and Singapore, English was also introduced into Southeast Asian countries such as Laos, Vietnam, Cambodia, Myanmar, Indonesia and Thailand at that time. In Thailand, "English was introduced to the country in the 18th century" (Methitam and Chamcharatsri, 2011, p.59).

The influence of English was predominant during the reign of King Rama III (1824–1851), especially from the American protestant missionaries who tried to convert Thais from Buddhism to Christianity (Methitham and Chamcharatsri, 2011). When this was unsuccessful, their direction suddenly turned towards other aspects, for example, the introduction of modern technology, medical work, and education. Because of the importance of modern technology introduced by the American missionaries, King Rama III also found English to be a crucial language. Later on, during the reign of King Rama V, use of the English language increased with the arrival of Western tutors in Thailand. The King himself also embraced the use of English as Thais became familiar with the language. He wanted Thais to learn English as a foreign language in order to communicate and interact with people and their communities from other parts of the world (Savage, 1997). From 1893 to 1937, several Thai students and Thai officers were sent to pursue higher education, especially to America and Europe (Sukamolson, 1998 as cited in Methitam and Chamcharatsri, 2011). Due to the emphasis of the English

language in Thai society and education, the English language became a mandatory subject in all government schools, particularly from grade 4 of primary level.

During the 1980s, Thailand's growth was rapid in both– foreign investment and in tourism; therefore competence in foreign language, especially fluency in the English language, was necessary for professional training, job applications as well as in job performances. As a result of this, English has become the preferred foreign language in Thailand. In addition, the success of 'The Visit Thailand Year' of Thailand's tourism industry in 1987 (Tourism of Thailand Authority Newsroom, 2016) had brought influence and high demand for the English language into the country related to trades, enterprises, and even joint–venture companies and factories. It can be claimed that the boost to the Thai tourist industry had potentially advocated the learning of English in the Thai education system as well (Methitam and Chamcharatsri, 2011).

1.3 The History of teaching English as a foreign language in Thailand

According to Durongphan et al. 1982, Wongsothorn, 2000, Foley, 2005 and Baker, 2008 as cited in Methitam and Chamcharatsri, (2011), the formal English language teaching (ELT) history began in the reign of the King Rama III. ELT was introduced by American missionaries who had brought Western education approaches into the Thai educational system. At that time, there was an increase in the number of Western foreigners for purposes of the colonial agenda, trading and religion. Therefore, the demand for fluent English speakers working as administrators and officials at courthouses was also greater.

King Rama IV was the first King who was able to speak and write in English. He also viewed English as a very important language and that the education taught in the court and monasteries for the sons of royalty and nobility was not sufficient for Thai government officials. For this purpose, a command by the King to modernize the education of the country was stimulated emphasis on English as being a new path of educational necessity (Educational Management Information

System Centre, 2001). Shortly afterwards, English lessons by British, American tutors and Christian missionaries were arranged for his wives, children and royal nobles. One of the well–known English teachers in the court during this period was Anna Leonowen. However, after the death of King Rama IV, Anna was not invited to continue her teaching in the court.

The educational modernization policy was further developed during 1868 to 1910 by King Rama V–the successor to King Rama IV. Owing to the need for well–trained officials in governmental and royal services, the King managed to open the first Thai school in 1871 in the palace in order to provide education to princes and the sons of nobles (Educational Management Information System Centre, 2001). This first school literally was perceived as the 'modern' school at that period of time because of its established teachers, layout of buildings and a schedule of teaching. As soon as the first Thai school was set up, the Command Declaration on Schooling was issued in 1871 for the purpose of establishing a formal education system during the reign of King Rama V. However, at this period of time, the education system was substantially for the use of aristocrats (Educational Management Information System Centre, 2001). Directly after the first school was established, King Rama V opened an English school in the court. This was a preparation for the princes and court children to further their education overseas. The King also opened several schools for commoners' children outside the palace. Furthermore, King Rama V had set up the Education Department in 1887 to inspect the country's religious and educational affairs. At the beginning of the department establishment, there were 34 schools located in the metropolitan and provincial areas. There were 1,994 students and 81 teachers including a number of teachers and students in four other advanced schools in the Bangkok metropolis.

Later on, in the reign of King Rama VI, the Compulsory Education Act was issued in 1921. In the national curriculum, English had turned into a mandatory subject for Thai learners after grade 4 as mentioned earlier. At that time, the purpose of English language teaching (ELT) in the view of educational policy makers was to create modern intellectuals or philosophers for the kingdom as well

as to give children an adequate knowledge of English, so that they were able to practice it in the English–speaking classrooms (Aksornkul, 1980 as cited in Methitam and Chamcharatsri, 2011). Apart from that, during the reigns of King Rama VI and King Rama VII (1910–1932), English language teaching was based on 'grammar translation' and 'rote–memorization' (Wongsothorn, 2000). The state of the Thai educational system remained the same until 1960. At this turning point, English for and on international communication was highly emphasised and brought into play in the English curriculum. Foley (2005) claims that as a consequence of the Indochina War and the participation of the United States, the 'audio–lingual method' used by army interpreters was introduced to replace Thai traditional grammar translation and rote–memorization. Eventually, it was found that this method failed to replace the traditional practices as the rote memorization and grammar translation had been deeply infused in the Thai education traditions for a very long time.

With a launch of the new national curricula in 1977 and 1980, learners in higher education were required to take six credits of foreign languages as part of a general education programme (Methitam and Chamcharatsri, 2011). According to Wongsothorn (2000), there were different foreign languages which students could learn such as Japanese, French and German. English was the preferred foreign language amongst Thai students as it became a required subject for Thai students from grade 4 and beyond. At this time, a new teaching approach termed 'the communicative approach' was proposed and became a new focus in the English language teaching circle of worldwide professionals. Concurrently, the British Council which was an English language teaching agency supported by the British government (Bhatt, 2001) organised training courses in order to help ELT teachers and professionals in Thailand. The British Council also continued free teacher training courses for Thai local teachers until recent years (Methitam and Chamcharatsrit, 2011). In these training courses, a native English speaker with a British accent and 20 local English lecturers attended the session whilst learning different techniques they could apply in their English classes.

In 1996, a new paradigm was initiated so the English subject became mandatory for Thai students from Grade 1, that is; to support the sound learning basis. This shift was carried out in accordance with a development of the English language curriculum based on a new functional–communicative approach (Methitam and Chamcharatsrit, 2011). This paradigm not only provided an opportunity for improvement of English language competency but could also assist students in achieving several aims or goals in studying English. For example, students would be able to communicate with foreigners, acquire new knowledge, use English to further their education, and to apply for well–paid jobs. Although these language teaching patterns designed by native English speakers appeared to be a suitable pathway for the learning and teaching of English for Thai students and non–native teachers, it was claimed that the patterns lacked adequate comprehension of local Thai contexts (Methitam and Chamcharatsrit, 2011).

According to Wongsothorn *et al*. (2003), the 1999 Education Act and National Education Curriculum introduced in 2002 placed English in the lead position of national intellectual development. As stated by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2005), the 1999 Education Act aimed to promote reforms in Thai education so that Thailand could become a 'knowledge–based society' and a 'knowledge–based economy' as the following statements from the Act illustrates:

> (1) Encourage an establishment of an educational network and system with high standard that can indeed provide advantages to the public in general.
>
> (2) Improve information network and an educational technology system in order to enhance chances for better education to all Thais in metropolitan and provincial districts.
>
> (3) Boost Thailand in taking a leading role and become an educational centre for neighbouring countries.

(4) Advocate an integration of education, culture, religion as well as sports into the training and educational curriculum which will be presented to Thai children and adolescence.

(5) Transform the process of learning to 'learning–centred method', self–access, and life–long learning education by stressing creativity's power, promoting a love of reading, establishing more public–based libraries, learning hubs, and educational means for community's usage.

(6) Affirm that 'teaching' is regarded as an honour, highly admired, and trustworthy career. Improve high–standard educators and teachers who act up to fundamental ethical consideration and its requirements.

(7) Develop the educational curriculum in order to assure that Thai children and teenagers become hard–working, disciplined, and skilful persons.

(Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2005 as cited in Kirkpatrick, 2012)

Moreover, this English curriculum is also based on 4Cs which are: (1) Culture, (2) Communication, (3) Community, and (4) Connection. The influence of this change impacted on English language teaching as there was also a reform of traditional teacher–centred toward child–centred approaches. The child–centred approach is grounded on child independent work, self–access and autonomous learning. It also requires practical experiences based on the needs of local community.

According to Davis (2014), the wave of educational reform commenced in 1997 coming to a close recently in 2010 has been the most extensive and complex reform period until now. In addition, the Netherlands organization for internationalization in education or EP–Nuffic (2015) comments that educational reform containing the National Education Plan of 2002–2016 was begun with the National Education Act in 1999. This reform has also brought about various

changes, for example; a guaranteed 12 years free education provided by the government and the introduction of standard licenses for teachers. During this period of time, a number of universities turned into self–governing institutions. Education was reorganised into three basic levels. The first level or 'Level One' was kindergarten. It provided education for children aged three to five–known as Kindergarten 1 to Kindergarten 3 (KG1–KG3). 'Level Two' is primary education which contains six years of basic education for children aged six to twelve: Pratom1 to Pratom6 (P.1–P.6). 'Level three' is secondary school education starting from Matayom1 to Matayom6 (M.1–M.6). However, only Matayom1 to Matayom3 (M1.–M.3) is obligation. At the end of each year, students also need to take a test in order to move on to the next level of their education.

1.4 Higher Education in Thailand

Universities, technical and professional colleges, teachers' colleges, and technical institutes are higher education institutions provided in Thailand. There are two types of institutions for higher education–institutions which are under the control of the Ministry of Education and ones which fall beneath different government organizations and ministries. To demonstrate, technical/professional, agricultural institutions, teacher training colleges, private institutions for higher education, and state universities fall beneath the Ministry of Education. Besides, specialised training institutions also belong to other government organizations or ministries.

1.4.1 Undergraduate education

Most undergraduate degree programmes have aduration of four years. The duration to study undergraduate degree programmes such as in pharmacy, graphic art, art and architecture lasts five years. Additionally, basic training of study in veterinary medicine, dentistry and medicine usually takes up to six years. All undergraduate's programmes have to take 30 credits of general education modules: mathematics, science, social science, and humanities. Apart from that, students need to take 84 credits of the specialization subjects for a four–year

undergraduate degree's programme or 115 credits for a five–year programme. Moreover, students have to choose elective subjects for 6 credits.

1.4.2 English courses at the tertiary level

According to Darasawong as cited in Prescott (2007), the developmental plan's policy of the tertiary level from 2002 to 2006 has encouraged and increased all fields of international exchange programmes of Thai and foreign students. This policy has also emphasized the significance of English. Darasawong asserts that English is still considered a mandatory subject at the tertiary level. Undergraduate students at this level are obliged to take twelve credits of English subjects which mean that students have to take four English subjects in order to accomplish their degree. Amongst these four subjects of English, the first two required subjects are fundamental courses; the other two subjects that students need to take are: 'English for Specific Purposes'. Moreover, the contents of these courses are considered in accordance with students' major, for example, English for engineering, English for medicine, etc. Students generally take these English subjects which cover three to four days of their lessons per week. A teaching period varies from 50 to 70 minutes which depends upon each university. Normally, a period of designed time takes approximately 50 minutes. The university also carries out a variety of teaching methods in order to give efficient language teachings and its instructions.

1.5 Research questions

This research aims to improve communication between native English lecturers and non–native English students through the identification and application of effective cross–cultural communication strategies in Thai EFL classrooms. This study is framed by the following questions:

Research Question 1. What cross–cultural communication strategies are applied in the Thai EFL classroom?

Research Question 2. Why native English lecturers and Thai students do use cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom?

Research Question 3. What factors contribute to effective communication between native English lecturers and Thai students in the Thai EFL classroom?

1.6 Significance of the study

This study explores the application of cross–cultural communication strategies (CCCs), communication strategies (CSs) and pedagogic strategies amongst native English lecturers, Thai lecturers, and Thai students in the Thai EFL classroom. CCCs and CSs used by teachers and learners will be identified and based on Tarone's (1983) communication taxonomies. This research also seeks to investigate the factors affecting the use of CCCs and CSs between teachers and students. Additionally, the study reveals teachers and students' perceptions on the application of cross–cultural communication strategies and communication strategies, particularly, whether or not CCCs and CSs can lead and assist them in achieving effective communication in their English classes. This research provides theoretical contributions to the research areas of communication strategies and L2 speaking.

The findings and the implications of the investigation will contribute to English language teaching and learning in Thailand and its pedagogy. The results of this study can also be used with other similar groups of students. Furthermore, they can be beneficial for other native English lecturers, people, and sectors in the field of English language teaching and learning. Teachers can apply and adapt the examples provided in this research to guide and advocate effective communication, and to enhance the ability of his or her students by using communication strategies in the classroom. Last but not least, the findings of this research will help raise teachers and students' awareness of the importance of the

communication strategies in practice for the betterment of their speaking competence.

From a theoretical perspective, cross–cultural communication strategies used by teachers and students are substantiated by this study. The usefulness and validity of cross–cultural communication strategies and communication strategies for developing Thai students and their English speaking proficiency have been discussed in the field of English language teaching and learning. According to Kongsom (2009), various scholars and researchers such as Faerch and Kasper (1983),Williems (1987), Tarone and Yule (1989), Dornyei, (1995), Lam (2004) support and recommend that communication strategy training is desirable to develop learners' strategic skills and abilities. Kongsom (2009) adds that, in those scholars' point of view; it is very important to teach learners about communication strategies, especially how to apply the most suitable communication strategies as well as to make the students aware of existing communication strategies. Despite research into the use of communication strategies in spoken language by language learners being conducted in the past two decades, there is little research on the use of cross–cultural communication in the real classroom setting of Thai EFL.

As this study was conducted to investigate cross–cultural communication applied by teachers and students in the Thai EFL classroom, a qualitative mixed–methods design was deemed appropriate to seek the findings in this current research through analysis and evaluation of data collected from teacher and student interviews, classroom observations, and audio recording of classroom teachings. All of these research methods provided interesting insights into how lecturers and their students apply several CCCs and CSs in different communicative contexts. Compared to previous research, this study is distinctive due to the fact that it captured both teachers and students' communication strategies in real classroom settings, while other studies mainly focus on capturing only students' communication strategies on the set–up speaking tasks or conversation tasks (Wongsawang, 2001; Weeraruk, 2003; Pornpibul, 2005; Kongsom, 2009; Chuanchaisit and Prapphal, 2009; Prapobratanakul and Kangkan, 2011; Metcalfe

and Noom–Ura, 2013). In addition, the development of a theoretic framework for this research through adopting Vygotsky's socio–cultural and Engeström's activity theories have manifested pictures of Thai EFL classrooms and how effective cross–cultural communication strategies and communication strategies were employed by both teacher and student. In addition, this set of effective CCCs can be applied in other similar teaching and learning contexts.

1.7 Organisation of this study

This thesis comprises of six chapters. Chapter one explains background, rationales, and discusses the aim of this study, research questions, the significance of this study, and the organization of the thesis. Chapter two provides definitions and components of culture, the meaning and concept of cross–cultural communication, the importance of cross–cultural communication, and the effect of cross–cultural differences. Following this, cultural values and cultural dimensions of various authors in this field are discussed: Hofstede (1980, 1991, 2010), Edward T. Hall (1976), Kluckhon and Strodtbeck (1961), Condon and Yousef (1975), Trompenaars and Turner (1993), Schwartz (1994b, 1999, 2004), Inglehart (1998, 2004), and the Globe study (2004). In addition, issues of teaching English for the purpose of this study, Thai students English proficiency problems, a historical overview and trends in research on communication strategies, the notion of communication strategies, and the application of communication strategies for L2 or foreign language acquisition are presented. Furthermore, different approaches to conceptualising communication strategies, inventories and classifications of communication strategies are elaborated and discussed. This chapter ends with the framework theories adopted by this study, and studies on communication strategies in Thailand. In chapter three, the research paradigm, research methodology, its justifications and rationales for selecting research design and instruments, settings and participants, pilot study data, main study data, data collection process, and ethical considerations are described and critiqued. Chapter four discusses the main study data analysis, its outcomes and

resultant findings from teacher and student interviews, observations and audio recording of classroom teachings, and illustrate themes emerged from the qualitative analysis. Chapter five discusses and interprets the major findings of this study in accordance with the research framework theories presented in chapter two. This chapter presents answers to the three research questions. Chapter six argues for the distinctiveness of the research, its significance and its originality. Limitations of the research are discussed. The thesis ends with consideration of next steps in terms of further research, recommendations for changes in practice, and implications of this study.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Establishing definitions and identifying components of culture

According to Williams (1983), "... the concept of culture is considered one of the two or three most complicated words in the English language". According to Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952, p.21) the term culture is defined as follows:

> Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (that is historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other, as conditioned elements of further actions.

In this definition, structural (i.e. components) and dynamic (i.e. learnable and transmittable) are the two main aspects on culture that are considered important. Moreover, Hall (1959, p. 169) believes that culture has been equalised with communication that is; "culture is communication and communication is culture". "Communication and culture reciprocally influence each other" stated Gudykunst *et al*. (1996, p.3). From this quote, it can be seen that the culture with which individuals are associated can influence the way they communicate with one another. On the other hand, the way individuals communicate can also change the culture they share. Gudykunst also suggests that there are many definitions of culture. Hall (1997, p.2) states that the notion of culture concerned shared meanings, that is:

> To say that two people belong to the same culture is to say that they interpret the world in roughly the same ways and can express themselves, their thoughts and feelings about the world, in ways which will be understood by each other. Thus culture depends on its participants interpreting meaningfully what is happening around them, and 'making sense' of the world, in broadly similar ways.

Barker and Galasinski (2001) suggest the concept of culture refers to 'a whole way of life' (p.3). They also believe that culture covers various ways of looking at human behaviour. In addition, Barker and Galasinski (2001) claim that to comprehend culture is to discover how meaning is symbolically generated through the significant rehearsal or practices of language within institutional and material contexts. Furthermore, many authors have used the metaphor of an onion to compare culture and its manifestations. To demonstrate, Hofstede (1980, 2001) presents the structure of the culture as an onion where 'values' are situated at the core then 'rituals', 'heroes', and 'symbols' are located in the other three layers respectively. He also suggested that to cultural outsiders, 'values' are considered as indiscernible compared to the other three layers. The other three layers are obviously visible in external–world interactions and artefacts. According to Trompenaars (1993) the manifestation of the culture consists of three layers in which assumptions of existence are at the core followed by 'norms' and 'values' being in the middle while 'explicit artefacts and products' are located in the outer layer. Ting–Toomey (1999) uses an iceberg metaphor as a display of culture which composes of three layers; 'cultural artefacts (fashion, popular culture)' being at the top, 'verbal symbols, nonverbal symbols and language' situated in the middle and 'cultural norms, values, beliefs, traditions and symbolic meanings' being at the bottom of the iceberg. Apart from those manifestations of culture demonstrated by Hofstede, Trompenaars and Ting–Toomey, Spencer–Oatey (2000) has highlighted four–layer conceptualisation of culture (see figure 2.1).

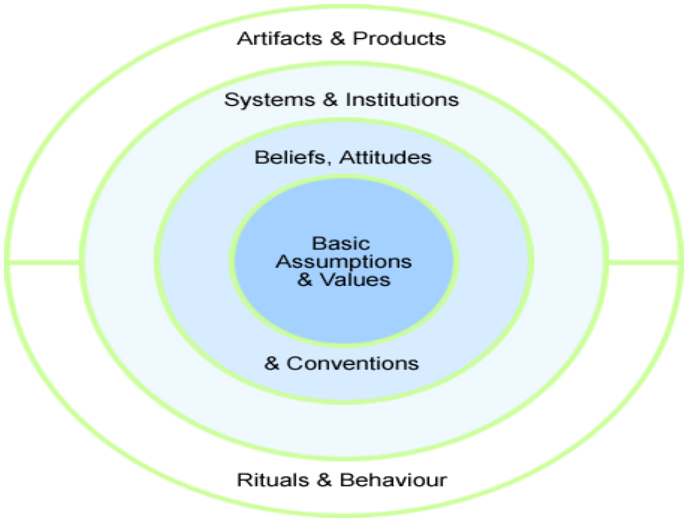


Figure 2.1 : Manifestations of culture at differing layers of depth
(Spencer–Oatey, 2000, p.5)

Based on Spencer–Oatey's (2000) classification, the three dimensions of culture–cultural values, communication conventions and educational systems and practices–will differentiate Thai and Western cultures. In the context of the study, the researcher has chosen the definition of culture stated by Hall (1959), that is; "culture is communication and communication is culture". In other words, every culture around the world has its own unique language. This language is made up of ideals, values, beliefs, traditions, and further attributes that constitute the essence of one's ways of communication. This research looks at cross–cultural communication between native English lecturers, Thai lecturers and Thai students using the English language as a main mean of communication in the Thai EFL classroom. Therefore, patterns of their communication as parts of conversations in the classroom including verbal and nonverbal communication also contain various aspects of Western and Thai cultures within ones' perspectives, beliefs, imaginary, and customs through its usage. This is the reason why Hall's (1959) notion of culture is suitable for the study.

2.2 Cross–cultural communication

2.2.1 Definitions of communication

Likewise the meanings of culture, various authors have indicated that 'communication' is also a difficult word to define. According to Jackson (2014), academics have provided a variety of definitions based on its dimensions such as process, dynamic, interactive or transactive, symbolic, intentional and unintentional, situated and contextual, pervasive, power–infused and cultural. To illustrate the symbolic perspective, Berelson and Steiner (1964, p.527) suggest that communication is "the transmission of information, ideas, emotion, skills, etc., by the use of symbols –words, pictures, figures, graphs, etc. It is the act or process of transmission that is usually called communication". Following situated and contextual perspective, Halualani and Nakayama (2010, p.7) comment that "communication involves the creation, constitution, and intertwining of situated meanings, social practices, structures, discourses, and nondiscursive". In other words, communication is used as a means by groups which own different status in order to build, retain, and establish social boundaries. On the interactive and transactive perspective, Guirdham (2011, p.38) refers to communication as "message exchange between two or more people". In cultural dimension, Sorrells (2013, p.10) indicates that "communication is a process of utilising cultural resources". For the purpose of this study, communication is simply defined as "a process in which a message is sent from sender to receivers" (Hua *et al*., 2012, p.833). That is, a process in which a message is sent from teacher to students and *vice versa*. This study is going to investigate effective cross–cultural communication strategies. Therefore, the term 'effective communication' refers to how well people express themselves verbally, non–verbally and in the ways that are suitable to contexts, situations and their cultures (Wong, 2003). Wong also inserts that effective communication signifies people's abilities in expressing their desires, ideas, opinions, fears, needs as well as asking for help and suggestion.

2.2.2 Meanings of cross–cultural communication

According to the Encyclopaedia of Communication Theory (2009), cross–cultural communication (CCC) is referred to as communication which occurs amongst members of whole cultures in contact or amongst their cultural representatives. In other words, there is an exchange of information between people of various cultural backgrounds (Matsumoto, 1996 as cited in Alan, 2000). Prosser (2009) states that a cross–cultural communication study takes place when researchers compare or contrast communication of people from various cultures as well as describing how communication differs from one culture to another. The term cross–cultural communication is differentiated from the term 'intercultural communication' and 'intracultural communication'. Prosser (2009) asserts that intercultural communication refers to exchanges between people from different backgrounds or cultures in interpersonal settings, whereas intracultural communication takes place between individuals who are sharing the same culture. For example, nearly all Canadians know that the boast "We're going to win the cup for sure this year!" refers to the Stanley Cup. Besides, Gudykunst (2003) mentions that cross–cultural communication is a part of intergroup communication which involves comparisons of communication across cultures. Levine and Adelman (1982; 1993, p.xvii) define cross–cultural communication as '...communication which includes verbal and non–verbal between people from different cultures'. They add that communication is affected by behaviour, cultural values and attitudes. Furthermore, Chunlan (2008, p.2) defines cross–cultural communication as "…the communication between a native speaker and a non–native speaker…whose cultural perceptions and symbol systems are distinct enough to alter the communication event". She claims that this term is frequently applied and referred to as communication between people from different cultures in which social or cultural backgrounds, lifestyle of living, beliefs and other aspects such as political views, education and economical status even interests are dissimilar. Therefore, it can be seen that most of the above definitions describe cross–cultural communication as communication occurring between people of different cultures and backgrounds. In this study, the researcher is going to use Chunlan's (2008, p.2) definition of CCC as the research is looking at

communication specifically between native English speakers (British and American lecturers) and Thai students. Hence, Chunlan's definition of CCC has been chosen to be the most suitable one for the above reasons.

2.2.3 The importance of cross–cultural communication

According to Tannen (1985) the study of Cross–Cultural Communication (CCC) concerns two aspects; these are theoretical and applied linguistics. Tannen (1985, p.203) claims that "...discourse analysts find cross–cultural communication a useful research" especially at the global level in which CCC can lead to significant impact on government negotiations particularly when they have to deal with various cultural assumptions and different ways of communications. Furthermore, CCC is important to most public and private interaction due to the fact that people utilise communication (talking with one another) to reach their goals. In many cases, people who communicate come from diverse cultural backgrounds.

2.2.4 Effects of cross–cultural differences

In cross–cultural communication, misunderstandings can occur from a certain tone of voice or use of the wrong pitch, or other paralinguistic cues (Tannen, 1985). Moreover, misunderstandings are more likely to happen amongst people who are coming from different nationalities. As speakers coming from different cultures hold different conventions to complete their goals in negotiations and communication, most are ready to conclude negatively about others who differ from them. Vassiliou, Triandis, Vassiliou, and McGuire (1972) claim that the shared interpretation comes from having more exposure or contacts with others from various backgrounds, and that mutual negative stereotypes are a result of the interaction. Besides, Tannen suggests that stereotypes emerge from the impressions a person has for another by perceiving their habits that convey

different meanings to their own cultural understanding. Thus, the perception of stereotyping can lead to a sense of discrimination when people are ignoring cultural differences.

2.3 Cultural values

Values are the core and essential part of culture. Manstead and Hewstone (1995) suggest that cultural values could be interpreted as "trans–situational goals that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or group" (p.665). Schwartz (1997) claims that the cultural values "transcend specific actions and situations" (p.71). He believes that they furnish motivation for one's own actions, and establish criteria for rendering the external world. Leung *et al*. (2002) states that the value–based approach to culture has been adopted in cross–cultural studies and used to compare national cultures. There are different studies with various numbers of dimensions comparing national cultures; to illustrate, Hall proposes two dimensions (1959, 1966, 1976), Kluckhon and Strodtbeck six dimensions (1961), Condon and Yousef six dimensions (1975), Hofstede five dimensions (1980, 1991), Trompenaars seven dimensions (1993), Schwartz seven dimensions (1994b, 1999, 2004), Inglehart *et al*. two dimensions (1998, 2004), and House *et al.* nine dimensions (2004). Following Thomas (2008), the major frameworks of cultural dimensions have been designed to compare and categorize cultures. Moreover, these frameworks not only extensively apply over different periods of time but also indicate some similar sets of cultural dimensions which can be followed by a profound explanation of collectivism and individualism. Last but not least, the dimensions proposed by each of these authors will be discussed below.

2.3.1 Hofstede's categorisation

Geert Hofstede is a Dutch social psychologist who deviated from anthropologists' interpretive methodology in order to compare cultures. His first large–scale

quantitative work on national cultural dimensions was published in a book called Culture's Consequences in 1980. This book was updated in 2001. The work involved a survey conducted in 50 countries and 3 regions (Hofstede, 2010); it was based on work opinions of International Business Machines Corporation (IBM) employees. By utilising factor analysis for his survey data, the first four cultural dimensions emerged (Hartmann, 2014). Later, Hofstede carried on a survey with college students which led to the emergence of a fifth dimension applied in 23 countries. According to Minkov and Hofstede (2011) as cited in Hartmann (2014), a sixth dimension called 'indulgence *versus* restraint' (IND index) contains a measure of self–restraint and the significance of leisure time. However, for the purpose of this study, the IND dimension will not be discussed due to its irrelevance. According to Rising and Garcia–Carbonell (2006), Hofstede becomes one of the most–cited authors in the cross–cultural field apart from Hall (1976). In addition, Hartmann (2014) asserts that Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been widely utilised in the entire areas especially the 'cross–cultural research'. Hofstede's empirical–proof framework not only provides justification for cross–cultural values of the investigation, but it particularly indicates the degree of similarity and dissimilarity between Thai, British and American cultural values. Thus, the review of Thai, British and American cultural values is based on this scheme.

The cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede's (1980, 1991) have been influential and broadly mentioned for culture comparison due to his massive data sample and the supporting empirical evidences from various field of studies. The five dimensions mentioned by Hofstede are (1) power distance (PDI), (2) individualism (IDV) *versus* collectivism, (3) masculinity (MAS) *versus* femininity, (4) uncertainty avoidance (UAI), and (5) long term *versus* short term orientation (LTO). Each culture can be viewed with the five dimensions. By looking at culture with those five dimensions, we can perceive its characteristics and tendency. In this study, five relevant dimensions of Hofstede's categorisation are considered and discussed.

2.3.1.1 Power distance

According to Hofstede (1991), power distance is about social inequality which includes the relationship with authority (p.13). The underlying issue at this point concerns how a society manages injustice between two parties. He also adds that people in societies presenting a high degree of power distance accept a hierarchical order in which everyone has a place and which needs no additional justification. On the other hand, in societies with low power distance, people strive for power distribution equalisation and require justification for power inequalities. In the high power distance countries, human relationships start from family, teachers–students, and superiors and subordinates are maintained.

Table 2.1 : Power distance index (PDI)

Country	**PDI score**
Thailand	64
United Kingdom	35
United States	35

Source : http://geert–hofstede.com/thailand.html (Hofstede, 2010)

Thailand is viewed as country which has a large degree of 'power distance' or PD. Hierarchy is instituted for convenience. According to Hofstede's research, the United Kingdom and the United States do not have a high position on the power distance index. This means that countries with large power distance tend to differentiate status of people with significant hierarchy in their organizations. Subordinates have high respect for their 'superiors' and act according to what they are required and told to do. It is normal to see inequality as expected, and might even be demanded in some cases. For the United Kingdom, the power distance index is quite low. This index demonstrates the low level of unequal division of power which is accepted. This index also shows that informalities are also accepted in modern businesses and communication. However, there is also a visible notion of respect for one's superiors. For the United States, the power distance index is considered low. Hierarchy has been instituted for availability.

People holding more power such as superiors are accessible. Employees and teams will be counted on by managers for their skills or knowledge. Furthermore, the communication approach is participative, direct and informal (Hofstede, 2010). In contrast, for Thais, in their communication a "Yes" might not refer to agreement or an acceptance. An offence can result in 'losing face'. Thais are very sensitive and do not want to feel embarrassed in front of their own group.

2.3.1.2 The distribution of power in classrooms

In addition, the Western culture of learning especially in the classroom is influenced by learner–centred, task–based or problem–solving approaches involving discussing, debating, expressing opinion and responding to teacher's questions as the 'active' participation from students. In contrast, not asking any questions, expressing opinions and so on can imply the opposite meaning. Hofstede (1991) proposes that 'power distance' is 'the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally' (p.46). He further elaborates that in the large–power–distance situations such as China, India, Indonesia, South Korea and Thailand, teachers are treated with respect and deference even outside school. This relationship is portrayed as being 'parent–child' that is established in the students' mind. So it is predictable that the educational process is teacher–centred (p.53). It is the teachers' duty to control students' intellectual paths and students are the ones who follow. Teachers initiate all talks and students express their opinion or speak up in class when they are told to contribute or teachers invite them to do so. On the contrary, Western countries are viewed as having a small–power–distance situation in which both parties are expected to be treated as equals. Therefore, the education process has put the emphasis on students, which is based on a 'student–centred' system. Students are given the rights to intervene, ask questions, argue if they disagree with something or make criticisms in front of teachers without having to consider the establishment of conflicts with their teachers.

2.3.1.3 Individualism *versus* collectivism

Hofstede (1991) proposes that individualism *versus* collectivism is "the relationship between the individual and the group" (p.13). That is, the ties between individuals are considered to be loose in individualist cultures. To demonstrate, people coming from individualist countries, represent themselves with the word 'I'. People from individualist societies place an emphasis on tasks rather than relationships with others. Meanwhile, collectivist countries have opposite thoughts. People from collectivist societies base themselves on the word 'we'. They also have a sense of 'losing face' or feeling ashamed for themselves and their group. Moreover, relationships between people are considered more crucial than tasks.

Table 2.2 : Individualism index (IDV)

Country	**IDV score**
Thailand	20
United Kingdom	89
United States	91

Source : http://geert–hofstede.com/thailand.html (Hofstede, 2010)

This table shows that the United Kingdom and the United States are individualistic countries with high IDV scores compared to Thailand. Thailand is less individualistic, and is identified as a collectivist country. People have the sense that they belong to a group which is demonstrated by their strong ties with one another. They believe that loyalty for the group which they belong to will protect them in return (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). The collectivist system is based on people's relationships. Holmes and Tangtongtavy (1995) suggest that the collectivist system is a type of adherent or relative relationship. It focuses on interchange and favours and at its core is kindliness and honestly. Indeed, links between people, including family connections, are valued as being very important. A belief in social harmony can be seen in Thai society. People are trying to avoid

having personal conflict with others. British people tend to be individualistic because people tend to live and work for themselves. According to Hofstede (2010), the American society is 'loosely–knit' which is referred to people's anticipation of only looking after their families and themselves. Besides, they believe that they ought not to depend too much on assistance of authorities.

2.3.1.4 The aspect of individualism *versus* collectivism in classrooms

This section discusses two main aspects which are individualism and collectivism in classrooms. Learners who grew up in the individualistic culture or Western students tend to think, act or behave differently in classrooms compare to Asian learners such as Thai students who have been raised in the collectivistic culture or society. A sense of being 'individualistic' or the 'collectivistic' of each party are discussed respectively. Moreover, several explanations of the reasons why Thai students tend to be quiet in class are justified below.

The ideal of individualism is deep–seated in the American economic, social and politic institutions (Ferraro, 1990; Kleinstuber, 2014). The belief underlying this dominant concept is that the value of the individual is predominant. It is the individual who possesses abilities to select his or her life's path. In other words, this statement has set out an emphasis of peculiar privacy. To illustrate, children raised in the background of individualism have been taught to make decisions by themselves. They establish their personal ideas, perspectives as well as opinions which can become more independent or self–supporting. That is, they can manage issues or problems by themselves.

In contrast, several cultures in Africa, South American and Asia have a firmly rooted collectivistic notion which can be appreciated in a different dimension. Hofstede (1991) asserts that students who think of themselves as being a part of the group hesitate to speak up if they lack approval, support and encouragement from the group to which they belong. Having a sense of the 'in-group' and strong tie relationships or relative relationships with family and friends as mentioned

earlier, Thai students prefer to work as a team or in a group (Oliver, 2017). That is why Thai students help each other in their homework or assignments as a group. Therefore, this common behaviour of 'helping hands' expressed by Thai students can be seen as being a part of collectivistic or the 'in-group' conception of society. The classroom of the collectivist culture has given significant value to 'face' or 'face–maintaining'. According to Apaibanditkul (2006), students raised in collectivist cultures such as in Thailand tend not to "ask questions publicly in class and…rarely consider approaching a teacher outside of class" (p.52). The reason lies in the need to 'maintain face'. They do not want to lose face by asking questions in front of the classroom. As asserted by Knutson, Hwang, Vivatananukul (1995) and Knutson (2004), the role of communication comprehension as it functions in Thailand, as well as the identification of cultural norms which influence communication behaviour of Thai people, portrays silence or quietness practised by Thai youngsters during the presence of older people as 'virtue'. The scholars further suggest that 'silence' or 'quietness' is the sign of respect in Thailand. As mentioned earlier by Hofstede (2010), Thailand is seen as more of a collectivist, and less as an individualistic, country. In other words, Thailand is considered a 'determinist' society. Moreover, Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam and Jablin (1999) emphasises that Thais identify successful communicators as perceiving how to communicate in order to avoid establishing conflicts with others, to demonstrate respect, humbleness, politeness and as a means of controlling their tempers. This profound receiver orientation of Thais, more than any other elements, appears to direct Thai people (particularly youngsters) to slowly increase their confidence to begin or initiate suitable messages. Hence, it can be said that one of the Thai cultural norms or aspects, the act of silence, is derived from cultural Thai social determinism rather than being a common reaction of students across cultures when they do not understand what has been said in English. Hofstede (1991) suggests that teachers in collectivist cultures also deal with their students in what is called an 'in–group', but do not deal with them one by one or individually. On the other hand, forming groups of students in the individualistic classroom and culture has aimed for specific goals which are supported with various teaching approaches and methods. Also, the

value of losing face is rarely seen in the individualistic classroom. Moreover, conflicts and/ or disagreement in the classroom initiate discussion which is seen to be beneficial for classroom development.

2.3.1.5 Masculinity *versus* femininity

Masculinity versus femininity can be explained through the implication of being born as a girl or a boy in society (Hofstede, 1991). That is to say; roles between men and women are clearly differentiated.

Table 2.3 : Masculinity index (MAS)

Country	**MAS score**
Thailand	34
United Kingdom	66
United States	62

Source:http://geert–hofstede.com/thailand.html (Hofstede, 2010)

The masculinity side of this dimension is represented by a high score of MAS. On the other hand, the feminine side of this dimension is also presented by a low score of MAS. According to Hofstede (2010), the basic issue of being a masculine society or feminine society is differentiated by two concepts–'like what you do (Feminine) or be the best (Masculine)'. A low score (Feminine) points to the fact that the society is dominated by people's care and life's quality. A feminine society places emphasis on the purpose of life being about its quality. The quality of life can be viewed as a sign of success or achievement in a feminine society. Hofstede (2010) inserts that standing out from the crowd is not commendable in a feminine society. To demonstrate, Thais have concerns about what other people may be saying about them. In other words, people do not want to be discerned so that they are safe while being with others in the groups. A high score (Masculine) on this dimension signifies the fact that the society will be defined by rivalry, accomplishment and prosperity. In other words, the meaning of 'prosperity' includes the notion of 'success' by which is implied the best or winner. This

becomes a value of its society which begins in school and transfers to other organisations of life. Hofstede also adds that people enjoy and do what they like to do in feminine society, whereas people in masculine society are more competitive and would like to be the best.

Compared to other comparable Asian countries, Thailand is considered to have a low Masculinity index. According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), the level of competitiveness and assertiveness in Thailand in comparison with other countries in the same region is also low. Sriussadaporn and Jablin's (1999) claims that Thai people possess non–assertive and non–dominant attributes. They also do not truly reveal their own ideas as much as they should do. This might relate to their collectivist culture. McCann and Giles (2007) state that Thais inherit a tradition of confrontation avoidance. These traits or characteristics are attributed to the Thai hierarchical system and the respect for elders. According to Boonnuch (2012, P.67), "the value of 'social hierarchy' has continued for a long time". She also asserts that people who are older are to be treated with respect in Thai society. Kaeokallaya (2006) comments that teachers and elders are not to be questioned or challenged. A consequence of the lack of creative thinking resulting from Thailand's tradition–based education system is that students find difficulty when required to discuss as part of the lesson.

2.3.1.6 Uncertainty avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance concerns how individuals cope with situations of which they are unsure (Hofstede, 1991). He asserts that the culture which has high uncertainty avoidance tends to need clear instructions and situations so that they can be assured of their comprehension and anticipation of other things. According to Hofstede (1991, p.125), in a culture where uncertainty avoidance is considered high or strong, people are likely to have "fear of ambiguous situations and unfamiliar risks".

Table 2.4 : Uncertainty avoidance index (UAI)

Country	UAI score
Thailand	64
United Kingdom	35
United States	46

Source : http://geert–hofstede.com/thailand.html (Hofstede, 2010)

Thailand has the highest or strongest score for uncertainty avoidance index when compared with the United Kingdom and the United States. Thai people try to reduce their uncertainty in everyday life, especially by using proper nouns and poses as part of communication in order to show deference, admiration, honour and politeness to other people (Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam and Jablin, 1999). The application of silence can be indicative of an uncertainty avoidance situation and confrontation with elders or senior people as well as others. In comparison, uncertainty avoidance incidents in the United Kingdom are considerably fewer. This could be interpreted that English people do not choose to anticipate the future of their life. They would prefer to focus their life on the short term, stay in the present and observe what happens to their path of life (Hofstede, 2010). Meanwhile, the Americans are likely to possess more tolerance of different perspectives, opinions and ideas from anybody. Therefore, this permits and welcomes a variety of expressions.

2.3.1.7 Long term orientation

This dimension explains that societies have to preserve linkage of their own past, whilst at the same time coping with the challenges of the present and future. The society which has a low score on this dimension has become a normative society. To illustrate, people in this society will preserve their precious or time–honored customs and traditions. At the same time, they follow the change of their society and become suspicious of it. On the other hand, with a high score in the long term orientation index, people in that particular society become more practical in their approaches. People also put efforts in modern education as to prepare themselves

for a better future. The long term orientation is also related to the teaching of Confucius. It can be interpreted as the seeking of goodness or morality in society.

Table 2.5 ： Long term orientation index (LTO)

Country	LTO score
Thailand	32
United Kingdom	51
United States	26

Source:http://geert–hofstede.com/thailand.html (Hofstede, 2010)

Thailand's low score of 32 points to the fact that Thai culture is "more normative than pragmatic". This illustrates that Thais respect traditions or customs as well as being acceptive of the inequality of people. Being a hard working person or having self–control is the main value that people praise and admire. Saving one's face is considered to be another important value and an obligation to be non–confrontational. Boonnuch (2012) affirms that young Thais have been taught to care about other people. Thai society is seen as 'an other–directed society' (Boonnuch, 2012, p.68). Moreover, the concept of face is derived from an 'other–directed society'. Regarding the dimension, Thai people also exhibit flexibility in their nature. Due to the flexibility, timescales and deadlines can be changeable (Hofstede, 2010).

Last but not least, the above tables of Hofstede's five cultural dimensions have shown that the major differences amongst Thai, British and American culture lie in the following five dimensions; power distance, individualism–collectivism, masculinity–femininity, uncertainty avoidance and long term – short term orientation. In comparison, Thai culture is high in power distance, collectivism, femininity, uncertainty avoidance. Whereas, British and American culture are characterised by masculinity, low power distance, high individualism and low certainty avoidance.

2.3.2 Hall's high–and low–context culture

According to Hartman (2014), anthropologist Hall's (1976) cultural dimensions depict high–context and low–context communication. Hall (1976) refers to this dimension as how messages and their meanings are conveyed and transferred. He claims that in a high–context culture, information can be perceived in either a physical or an internalised context, whereas the information from those in a low–context culture is discussed in an explicit way. That is, people's communication in the high–context culture is implicit and covert. Besides, they are much more reserved, and nonverbal communication is greatly emphasised. Contrarily, people from the low–context culture prefer to verbalise their communication in order to obtain what they need. Their reaction becomes very direct during the time of delivering verbal messages or communication. In accordance with Kittler, Rygl and Mackinnon (2011), Hall's context dimension has been used widely in different areas such as negotiation, marketing and communication. However, his empirical work had been criticised for contradictory measuring and sample choice (Kittler, Rygl and Mackinnon, 2011).

2.3.3 Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's six dimensions

DiStefano, Nason and Maznevski, (1993) claim that Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck have generated a good theoretical fundamental for this framework. The six cultural dimensions are comprised of relationships to nature, beliefs about man–nature, relationships between people, nature of man's activity, conception of space, and orientation to time. To begin with, the first dimension considers about man's responsibility to take care in the domination or mastering of nature and maintaining balance (Thomas, 2008). Secondly, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck propose that there are three categories of human being; evil, good or a commixture of evil and good. Thirdly, they propose that humans are responsible for themselves and for groups that they belong to. The notion of the nature of human activity contains focus such as concentrating on living in the present time of being, and to attempt to reach for goals as well as to reflect on one's thoughts. The conception of space refers to public and private space. However, Hill (2002)

argues that this dimension was not investigated further by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck. The last dimension which is the orientation to time has a focus on the past (the time before now), and on conserving and sustaining conventional beliefs and teachings. Besides, a focus on the present time leads to adaptation in a change of customs and beliefs. Moreover, a focus on the future is about planning ahead of time, and looking for new paths to substitute the previous ones (Hill, 2002). Maznevski, DiStefano, Gomez, Noorderhaven, and Wu, (2002) suggest that the validity of the four dimensions can be suitably applied in management research despite the six dimensions. Similarly, Thomas (2008) also comments that this framework can be demonstrated vastly in management field as they implicate behaviour of one's preferences in management.

2.3.4 Condon and Yousef's six dimensions

Liu (2001) explains that even though Kluckhohn and Strodbeck's framework is heuristic and accurate, these value orientation categories are "…too simple to capture the complex nature of human society." (p.19). Later on Condon and Yousef (1975) expanded this model further by presenting six dimensions which were: the self, the family, society, human nature, nature, and the supernatural. Each dimension provides three to five orientations and there are three variations in each orientation. An illustration of Condon and Yousef's (1975) cultural dimensions are demonstrated in this following table;

Table 2.6 ： An example of Condon and Yousef's (1975) six cultural spheres or dimensions adapted from Liu (2001, p.19–20)

Dimensions	**Orientations**	**Variations**
Self	Individual–interdependence	individualism Individuality Interdependence
	Age	Youth Middle years Old age
	Sex	Equality of sexes Female Superiority Male superiority

Dimensions	Orientations	Variations
Society	Social Reciprocity	Independence Symmetrical–obligatory Complement–obligatory
Society	Group membership	Many groups Brief identification Subordination of group (individual versus few people) Prolonged identification Subordination of the member to the group
	Intermediaries	No intermediaries Special intermediaries only Essential intermediaries

Dimensions	Orientations	Variations
	Formality	Informality Selective formality Pervasive formality
	Property	Private Utilitarian Community

According to Condon and Yousef (1975), this framework provides an understandable list of cultural value orientations which might occur in any society. Liu (2001) claimed that this model is not only too aspiring but the list of these cultural value orientations is also too exhaustive to apply as a whole.

2.3.5 Fons Trompenaars and Charles Hampden–Turner's seven dimensions

Trompenaars and Hampden–Turner investigated culture in their research in 1993. Business people were the focus of their research. Besides, their results or findings relate to and provide descriptions about culture. Seven cultural dimensions are identified and believed to give distinctive details of national cultures. The first five dimensions concern perspectives of relationship amongst society members, and one dimension mentions the relationship between members of the society and their environment. The last dimension discusses different features of time orientation (Alan, 2010). Alan (2010) also claims that this model presents description of cultural distinctions in multi–national organizations as well as providing comprehension for business people especially managers in order to prevent or avoid cultural misunderstandings.

2.3.5.1 Universalism *versus* particularism

The concept of universalism and particularism is similar to Hofstede's individualism and collectivism. People from Universalist cultures tend to base their thoughts on rules and regulations, for example, during the time of decision–making. On the other hand, Trompenaars and Hampden–Turner (1993) suggest that people from particularist cultures are likely to concentrate on current conditions, present time and human relationship regardless of regulations and rules.

2.3.5.2 Affective *versus* neutral

Trompenaars and Hampden–Turner (1993) describe that there are two kinds of cultures which can be divided in terms of emotion expression. These types of

cultures are called ‘neutral’ and ‘affective’ cultures. People from neutral cultures are usually restrained, have a moderation or control of their feelings. Despite this fact, their emotional moderation cannot be signified that they are cold or heartless. Furthermore, Trompenaars and Hampden–Turner mention that Asians and Anglo–Saxons are those who are from the ‘neutral’ cultures.

2.3.5.3 Individualism *versus* collectivism

People from individualist societies consider themselves or the individual before their own community or group. Individuals also perceive that welfare, happiness and fulfilment are the most significant elements in their societies. In contrast, members from collectivist societies emphasise the community or the group before themselves or the individual (Gutterman, 2010).

2.3.5.4 Achievement *versus* ascription

Achievement and ascription differentiate societies which are based on distribution of authority and status. This dimension is similar to Hofstede’s power distance dimension (Gutterman, 2010).

2.3.5.5 Specific *versus* diffuse

The specific and diffuse differentiate societies on a basis of how members of societies take part in various or specific areas of their lives. People who belong to higher specific–oriented societies are likely to have clear separation between their working and personal lives. Members from diffuse–oriented societies interrelate single factors of their lives without clear distinction of their working and personal lives.

2.3.5.6 Internal *versus* external

Members in an internal or inner–directed society believe that they are able to take control over nature, whereas members from an external society perceive that people can live in harmony with nature as well as adapt themselves to other conditions.

2.3.5.7 Time as sequence *versus* Time as synchronisation

Trompenaars and Hampden–Turner state that time orientation explains a way that culture is reflected to time. Time orientation societies are divided to three types of societies; past–oriented societies, present–oriented societies and future–oriented societies. Past–oriented societies have demonstrated that members of the societies have respect for older people, ancestors and antecedents. Things are perceived in the context of history or tradition. People from present–oriented societies put more weight or focus on enjoyments and current activities as being the most significant for life. Future–oriented societies focus on future views, capability and future accomplishment.

2.3.6 Schwartz's seven dimensions

Schwartz's dimensions derive from examination of past research and theory. Shalom Schwartz and his colleagues (Sagiv & Schwartz, 1995; Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990 as cited in Thomas 2008) carried out a set of investigations on the structure and the content of human values. Schwartz (1999) also perceived the theory as justification for cultural value related work: "some implications of cultural values for work centrality, societal norms about work, and work goals in different societies" (p.24). According to Smith and Bond (1999) as cited in Thomas (2008), Schwartz's cultural values could be viewed as a refining of the early work of Hofstede. Moreover, some of Schwartz's cultural values are compatible with Hofstede's cultural values. Hofstede's collectivism is consistent with Schwartz's agreement, custom and protection or security. On the other hand, Schwartz's accomplishment, self–reliance, and sensualism value types represent the concept of Hofstede's individualism. Hofstede's power distance can also be seen in Schwartz's value types of universalism and power. Besides, Schwartz's achievement versus benevolence symbolizes Hofstede's masculinity versus femininity. Later on, Schwartz and his colleagues conducted multidimensional scaling analysis in order to identify cultural dimensions at the level of national

cultures. The analysis provided seven value types which are known as 'seven dimensions' seen as follows;

Table 2.7 : Schwartz's seven dimensions

Cultural Dimensions	Meanings
Egalitarianism	Being aware of people as righteousness equivalence
Harmony	Fitting into nature and environment
Embeddedness	People as rooted in the group
Hierarchy	Legalization of distribution of equals and power
Mastery	Utilisation of the social and natural environment
Affective autonomy	Following assertive or positive experiences
Intellectual autonomy	Having independent pursuance of own thoughts

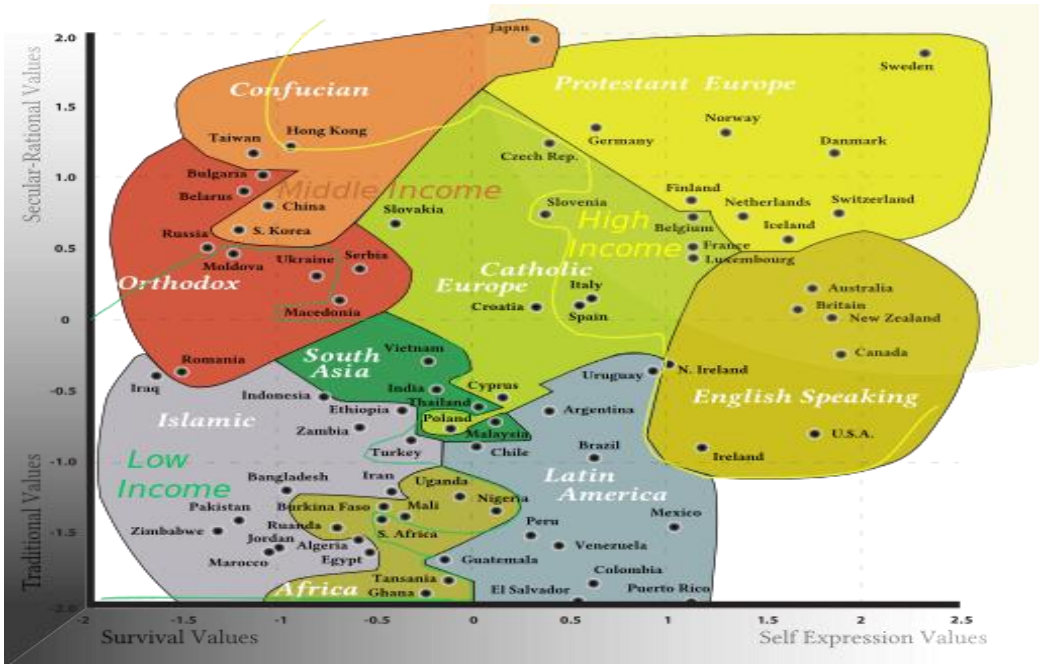
Source: Adapted from Scwartz value survey as cited in Thomas (2008).

2.3.7 Inglehart's two dimensions (The World Value Survey)

According to Inglehart *et al*. (2004), the World Values Survey is known as a worldwide examination of political and sociocultural alteration. This survey is managed by a group of global social scientists who have fulfilled surveys of national sample representatives taken from more than 80 public societies and on all six continents. Inglehart (2004, p.2) also adds that "these surveys show pervasive changes in what people want out of life and what they believe". These surveys give useful information on significant elements of social change such as beliefs, motivations and values of the participants involved. The evidence derived from this new source reveals that people's beliefs play a crucial role in the development of economics, the flourishing and the appearance of democratic institutes, the distribution of gender equality, and the degree to which societies establish efficient governments. The analysis of the World Values Survey data affirms that there are two main dimensions of cross–cultural variation in the world: the first one is called 'x–axis' or survival values versus self–expression

values and the second one is called ‘y–axis’ or traditional values versus secular–rational values as seen below;

Figure 2.2 : Inglehart’s two dimensions (The World Value Survey)



Source : https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Inglehart%E2%80%93Welzel_cultural_map_of_the_world#/media/File:Inglehart_Values_Map2.svg

2.3.8 The GLOBE study (House *et al*.’s nine dimensions)

The current research of cultural dissimilarity in orientation of values has been conducted by a group called ‘GLOBE’ or the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness program (House *et al.*, 2004) as cited in Thomas (2004). 170 researchers took part in the GLOBE study. The researcher worked in 62 various societies. Data was taken from middle managers in 951 organizations (Thomas, 2008). One of the findings of the GLOBE study was the identification of a nine dimension construction of cultural differences. According to Michael (2007), the empirical findings of the GLOBE research reveal variations and/or the similarities in values, norms, practices and beliefs between

societies. Michael comments that the findings of this study were constructed on previous research, such as Hofstede's (1980), Schwartz's (1994), Smith's (1995), Inglehart's (1997) and others. Moreover, Thomas (2008) states that the first four dimensions (institutional collectivism, in–group collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance) seen in the following table of the GLOBE study are explained as an enlargement of Hofstede (1980). In addition, the study also discloses two dimensions termed 'collectivism' by the use of factor analysis.

The dimensions 'gender egalitarianism' and 'assertiveness' have been claimed to be re–formalisation of masculinity *versus* femininity dimension according to Hofstede (Thomas, 2008). Furthermore, 'humane orientation' and 'future orientation' are dimensions taken from Kluckhohn and Strodbeck (1961)'s original work that discusses human nature and the orientation of time. The last dimension which is 'performance orientation' is justified by House *et al.* (2004). This dimension refers to the idea of accomplishment inspiration which can also be linked to Hofstede (2001). Interestingly, the GLOBE cultural dimensions were tested both as the way things are (practices) and the way things should be (values). A significant message is the lack of success of the GLOBE research "to clearly specify the mechanism for aggregating the individual–level responses to the societal level of analysis" (Thomas, 2008, p.64).

Having viewed the eight studies of cultural dimensions, it is seen that some theories of cultural dimensions are too complicated or too exhaustive to apply as a whole such as Condon and Yousef's categorisation. Meanwhile, some theories have been developed and built on one another. To illustrate; some of Trompenaars' and Turner's cultural dimensions are similar to Hofstede's. Schwartz's cultural dimensions are seen as the fineness earlier work of Hofstede's. Also, some cultural dimensions of the GLOBE study can be described as an enlargement of Hofstede's (1980) work. Therefore, Hofstede's work has brought great influence on many researches particularly on cultural dimensions as seen in the following table;

Table 2.8 ： A summary of the GLOBE study's cultural dimensions.

Cultural Dimensions	Descriptions
Institutional collectivism	The extent to which societal institutional organizational exercise or practices embolden and recompense group distribution of resource and action
In–group collectivism	The extent to which individuals manifest self–importance, cohesiveness, and faithfulness in their families or organizations.
Power distance	The extent to which members of a group anticipate distribution of power to be evenly.
Uncertainty avoidance	The extent to which organizations, societies or groups depend on norms, regulations, and schemes to soothe unpredictable incidents.
Gender egalitarianism	The extent to which a group lessens inequality of gender.
Assertiveness	The extent to which individuals are self–assertive, aggressive, and confrontational while having relationships with other people.
Humane orientation	The extent to which a group emboldens and recompenses people for being unbiased, selfless, kind, and caring for others.
Future orientation	The degree to which people involve in future–oriented manners such as delayed satisfactory, planning, and probing in the future.
Performance orientation	The extent to which a group emboldens and recompenses members of the group for performance development and distinction.

Source: Adapted from the GLOBE study as cited in Michael (2007) and Thomas (2008)

Table 2.9 ： A summary of cultural dimensions developed through time by various scholars.

Authorities	**Year**	**Characteristics of cultural dimensions**
Hall	1959, 1966, 1976	*2 cultural dimensions*: high–context and low–context culture) High–context culture: people's communication is implicit and covert. People are reserved and put emphasis on nonverbal communication. Low–context culture: people are much more direct and prefer to verbalise.
Kluckhon and Strodtbeck	1961	*6 cultural dimensions*: (1) relation to nature (2) belief about man–nature (3) orientation to time (4) nature of man activity (5) relationships between people. These dimensions are claimed to be appropriate for management behaviour of one's preferences.

Authorities	Year	Characteristics of cultural dimensions
Condon and Yousef	1975	*6 cultural dimensions:* (1) the self (2) the family (3) society (4) human nature (5) nature (6) the supernatural. This model of cultural dimensions is claimed to be too ambitious and too exhaustive to study as a whole.
Trompenaar and Turner	1993	*7 cultural dimensions :* (1) universalism vs. particularism (*similar to Hofstede's individualism and collectivism*) (2) affective vs. neutral (3) individualism vs. collectivism

Authorities	Year	Characteristics of cultural dimensions
		(4) achievement vs. ascription (similar to Hofstede's power distance dimension) (5) specific vs. diffuse (6) internal vs. external (7) time as sequence vs. time as synchronisation
Schwartz	1994b, 1999, 2004	*7 dimensions :* (1) egalitarianism (2) harmony (3) embeddedness (4) hierarchy (5) mastery (6) affective autonomy (7) intellectual autonomy These cultural dimensions are seen as the fineness earlier work of Hofstede's.

Authorities	Year	Characteristics of cultural dimensions
Inglehart *et al.*	1998, 2004	*2 main dimensions* of cross–cultural variation in the world: 'x–axis' or survival values vs. self –expression values. 'y–axis' or traditional values vs. secular– rational values.
House *et al*. (The GLOBE study)	2004	*9 cultural dimensions*: (1) institutional collectivism (2) in–group collectivism (3) power distance (4) uncertainty avoidance (5) gender egalitarianism (6) assertiveness (7) humane orientation (8) future orientation (9) performance orientation.

Authorities	Year	Characteristics of cultural dimensions
		The first four cultural dimensions are viewed as an enlargement of Hofstede's (1980). Besides, egalitarianism and assertiveness can be seen as a re–formalisation of Hofstede's masculinity vs. femininity.
Hofstede	1980, 1991,2001, 2010	*5 cultural dimensions* (1)power distance, (2) individualism *vs.* collectivism, (3) masculinity vs. femininity (4) uncertainty avoidance (5) long term vs. short term orientation.

2.3.9 Summary of all cultural dimensions and their significance to the research study

This research applied Hofstede (1991)'s five cultural dimensions to the interaction and communication between Thai students and lecturers from diverse backgrounds: Thai, British and American. A key finding of this research identified differences in the five cultural dimensions, particularly the power distance and individualism/collectivism dimensions. This characterized the teaching beliefs and practices of each lecturer and student, reflected in the individualistic and/or collectivist cultural application of CCCs, CCs and pedagogic strategies. Furthermore, the indication of Hall (1976)'s high and low-context communication reflected and justified communication types, especially, verbal and nonverbal communication of Western lecturers which are derived from low-context culture. Western lecturers and students prefer to discuss, talk or verbalise their messages explicitly or overtly so that both parties can receive what they need. In contrast, Asian lecturers and students prefer to communicate implicitly or covertly by placing more emphasis on the use of nonverbal communication (Halverson, 1993; Neese, 2016). According to Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961)'s six dimensions, most of the dimensions are not relevant to this study except the orientation to time which discusses how to conserve or preserve conventional beliefs and teaching. Significantly, having studied the conventional beliefs provides the basis of how to currently improve teaching-learning practices, teacher-student communication and interaction. As stated previously, in section 2.3.4, Condon and Yousef (1975)'s six dimensions derived from the expansion of Kluckhohn and Strodbeck's six dimensions. Jaupaj (2012) states that these cultural values or dimensions indicate universal problems all human societies encounter. Having reviewed these dimensions, it can be summarised that its emphasis or focus is on how a human being relates him or herself in the society either individually or as a group member by using intermediaries (see Table 2.6). Having understood the environment or context, human nature and beliefs, teachers or lecturers will have the awareness of their students' natures and how to cope with them individually or as an 'in-group'.

Trompenaars and Hamden-Turner (1993)'s seven dimensions assist lecturers to understand the diverse backgrounds of learners or students which also indicate or demonstrate their preferences or characteristics in the EFL classroom. To illustrate, typical universalist cultures include the U.S., the UK and other European countries. Typical particularistic cultures are Latin American and Asian countries such as China and Thailand (MindTools.com, 2018). As Thai students participated in this current study, British and American lecturers could not ignore the fact that flexibilities and time-taking for relationship establishment amongst teachers and students are essential. At the same time, Thai students have to realise and be aware that rules or regulations set by native English lecturers are taken into account. The individualistic *versus* collectivistic dimension stated by Trompenaars and Hamden-Turner is similar to that proposed by Hofstede. The Specific *versus* diffuse dimension explicates the directness in communication. Typical specific cultures include the U.S., the UK and other European countries, therefore, British and American people tend to be direct to the point when speaking or having conversations with one another. In typical diffuse cultures such as India, China and Thailand, people try to avoid having conflicts with others. In accordance with the statement above, teachers and students from different cultures are able to cope with cultural differences and some features of Thai students are evident whilst communicating and interacting with their lecturers. The significance of the affective *versus* neutral dimension gives details of emotive expression. Trompenaars and Hamden-Turner (1993), propose that Asians and those of Anglo-Saxon heritage especially Thai, British and American as the participants of this study are considered to be the neutral cultures. Therefore, it is said that people from neutral cultures are able to control their feelings (Trompenaars and Hamden-Turner, 2005). According to Hofstede (2010), Thai students dislike speaking up or initiating ideas and opinions in classrooms. Moreover, the details of the Americans who like to possess more tolerance of different perspectives, opinions and ideas from anybody is consistent with Trompenaars and Hamden-Turner (1993)'s proposition. The fact that British people are able to restrain or control their feelings (Trompenaars and Hamden-Turner,1993) is in contrast with Hofstede (2018)'s statement. That is, British

people are classified as those who have weak control of their emotions, desires and impulses. Having mentioned earlier by Trompenaars and Hamden-Turner (1993) in section 2.3.5, the achievement *versus* ascription cultural dimension signifies power distribution in the culture or society which is similar to Hofstede's power distance. Asians are considered to be an ascription culture as people pay high respect to authority and use clear titles to indicate people's status in the institute or organization. Besides, power, positions and titles are important to this culture (MindTools.com, 2018). Typical achievement culture includes the U.S. and European countries (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997, p.101-119). This culture values effective performance regardless of people's backgrounds. Following Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997, p.8-10), this cultural dimension mentions specific relation of human and their natural surroundings or environment. It is suggested that if people know how to treat their environment, people will treat others the same way as they treat their environment. For time as sequence *versus* time as synchronization, the UK and the U.S. are perceived as typical sequential time cultures. Therefore, British and American people's understanding of time is considered inflexible and sequential. They place high value on money; "time is money" (Bălan and Vreja, 2013). On the contrary, people coming from synchronous-time cultures such as Japanese and Thai view commitments and plans as flexible (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997, p.119-138). Taking these two dimensions above into account, it is necessary to realise and perceive people's perspectives concerning time and their relation with surroundings.

Schwartz's cultural dimensions are seen as "the basis for the ways that societal institutions such as the family, religious, education, economic, political systems function their goals and their mode of operation" (Schwartz, 1999, p.25 as cited in Bălan and Vreja, 2013). As stated in section 2.3.6 that a few dimensions of Schwartz's dimension resemble Hofstede's, hence, these similarities provide more support and strength to Hofstede's cultural dimensions in terms of collectivism, individualism and power distance. Moreover, Inglehart *et al.* (2004)'s two cultural dimensions help identify supporting details and pinpoint survival values, self-expression values, traditional values and secular traditional values of American

and Thai participants of this study. As indicated in Figure 2.2, the U.S. is perceived as a high income country whereas Thailand is seen as a middle income country. Additionally, the U.S. is known as an English speaking country without identifying its religious beliefs as parts of the traditional value on the 'y-axis'. On the other hand, Thai traditional values such as people's beliefs are higher compared to the U.S. on the 'x-axis'. At this point, it can be viewed that Thai people place emphasis on their traditional beliefs more than the U.S. This finding leads to a provision of supporting facts regarding Thai traditional teaching-learning practices and beliefs rooted in the EFL classrooms. Furthermore, several cultural dimensions from the GLOBE's study (Thomas, 2008) resemble Hofstede's such as power distance, uncertainty avoidance and in-group collectivism reflect those identified by Hofstede. It can therefore be concluded that Hofstede's cultural dimensions are the main elements underlying the indication towards teacher-students' behaviours and interactions in accordance with their different backgrounds whilst communicating in English.

2.4 Teaching of English as a foreign language in Thailand

The history of teaching of English language in Thailand began during the period of King Rama III (1824 –1851). According to Foley (2005), English has been one of the obligatory subjects in schools since 1921. Despite the long history of English teaching and learning in Thailand and current enlargement of Thai government educational funding (Kirkpatrick, 2012), various Thai scholars and educators have stated their concerns about the standards of English language education (Methitham and Chamcharatsri, 2011; Draper, 2012, Kirkpatrick, 2012 as cited in Metcalfe and Noom–Ura, 2013). In accordance with Foley (2005), Thai educators affirm the fact that Thai students have demonstrated a lack of linguistic and communicative proficiency. Metcalfe and Noom–Ura (2013) also suggest that as Thailand was going to take part into the ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) community in 2015, therefore, the necessity to improve Thai students' English speaking competence has become a major attention in the

media. In addition, Marukatat (2011) suggests that the lack of English skills of Thai students can lead to disadvantages when compared with other ASEAN learners. Metcalfe and Noom–Ura (2013), mention that there are several reasons behind the lack of linguistic and communicative proficiency of Thai students. These will be discussed below.

2.4.1 Thai students' English proficiency problems and issues

Following Metcalfe and Noom–Ura (2013), negative feedback following research into the examination or testing system (Foley, 2005), a lack of teaching resources, and of the chance to practise speaking English outside and inside the classroom (Kirkpatrick, 2012) were revealed as contributing to the English language deficiency problem. According to Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009), Thai students have encountered issues of communication in English, particularly students who have low English proficiency. They also assert that a cause of this problem might not only derive from a lack of basic vocabulary and grammar, but also from a lack of or deficiency in the utilisation of suitable communication strategies. In the Thai classroom context, some Thai students avoid making mistakes or 'loss of face', whereas some are likely to take risks during the time of having conversation with their lecturers in the classroom in order to try to solve communication breakdowns. Apart from the above causes, rote learning brings impacts onto Thai students. That is, the term 'passive learners' becomes appropriate for Thai students. Witte (2000) as cited in Kirkpatrick (2012, p.176) claims that:

> Students in Thailand aretaught vocabulary by repeating words spoken by their teachers and memorizing theword's spelling and meaning, which are passive learning strategies. Students do nothave the opportunity to apply their vocabulary in real–life situations, that is, throughactive learning strategies.

Moreover, Snae and Brueckner (2007) comment that in Thai culture, rote learning and learning by illustration or example are common paths of learning. They argue that Thai students do not have good reading habits. Snae and Brueckner (2007) also mention that Thai students possess less sense of participation in terms of attitude towards learning.

2.4.2 Issues in teaching English (for the purposes of this study)

As in many countries where English is not the mother tongue, there are questions, confusion and debates regarding the main principles of Thai education and English teaching. Kirkpatrick (2012) suggests three main issues which are teaching methods, teacher training and skill level and movement from traditional Buddhist values. Kirkpatrick (2012) explains the fact that rote learning, grammar translation approaches and teacher–centred classrooms are habitually practised. Hallinger and Kantamara (2000) claim that at tertiary level, teachers also lack competence or skills of theoretical and practical knowledge amongst many scholars or academics. They also point to the fact that some teachers have little knowledge about communicative methods or approaches to language teaching, particularly in overcrowded classrooms. Thirdly, there is a great concern about the decrease of Buddhist ideas and philosophies since a spread of modernization and over–reliance of Western educational philosophies.

2.5 Communication strategies in second–language acquisition

2.5.1 Approaches to conceptualizing communication strategies

Many researchers attempt to conceptualize CS to provide the theoretical perspective that each one adopts. These perspectives are based on earlier work and demonstrate how CS taxonomies are influenced or derived. For example, Tarone's (1977) definition of CS reflects the traditional view of CSs, which

resembles Færch & Kasper's (1983b). However, Færch & Kasper had considered CSs verbal plans within a speech production framework. According to Ting & Phan (2008, p.29), Færch and Kasper are "noted for psychological problem–solving view of communication strategies". Tarone's well–known conceptualization of CS was introduced in 1980. This concept introduced an 'interactional perspective'. She mentioned that the intention of using CS(s) was "to clarify intended meaning rather than simply correct linguistic form" (Tarone, 1980, p.424 as cited in Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Subsequently, Dörnyei and Scott (1995) added some problem–solving strategies, for example, the use of lexicalized pause fillers, hesitation gambits that can assist speakers to gain time before continuing their conversation and to keep the communication channel open (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Psychological approaches were presented by Bialystok (1990) and the Nijmegen Group (Bongaerts, Kellerman, and Poulisse). They claim that communication strategies are intrinsically mental procedures and that CS research should investigate cognitive processes hidden in strategic language use. Similarly, Poulisse (1993) advocated a modified process–oriented cognitive taxonomy and supported psycholinguistic analysis of strategic language behaviour.

Furthermore, the term 'communication strategies' were extended to deal with three types of communication problems; own–performance problems, other–performance problems and processing time pressure (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Own–performance problems are associated with different types of self–repair, self–rephrasing and self–editing mechanisms (e.g. Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b; Savignon, 1983; Tarone, 1980; Tarone & Yule, 1987; Willems, 1987) especially when something is said incorrectly. Other–performance problems include those occurring in the interlocutor's speech because of either a lack of comprehension or because it is thought to be incorrect through association with different meaning negotiation strategies (e.g. Canale, 1983; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1992, 1994; Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b; Rost, 1994; Rost & Ross, 1991; Rubin,1987; Savignon, 1983; Willems,1987). Dörnyei & Scott (1997) claim that L2 speakers frequently need more time to process and plan L2 speech, therefore strategies such as the use of fillers, self–repetitions and hesitation devices (e.g.

Canale, 1983; Chen, 1990; Dörnyei, 1995; Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991, 1992, 1994; Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Rost, 1994; Rubin, 1987; Savignon, 1972, 1983; Tarone & Yule, 1987) are utilised when L2 speakers have processing time pressure. Apart from the problem–orientedness or problematicity that is used to conceptualize CS, 'consciousness' is also considered to be the second major defining criterion for CSs (Kongsom, 2009). Bialystok (1990) distinguishes consciousness from intentionality. Besides, she claims that learners may select particular strategies and use them as they have control over a repertoire of strategies.

2.5.2 Notions of communication strategies

Communication strategies CSs are defined as strategies which learners apply in order to overcome a lack of linguistic resources as well as to express what they intend to communicate (Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2009). The term 'communication strategy' was first coined and introduced by Selinker in 1972. At that time Selinker used the term 'Communication Strategies' to refer to a process which is accountable for generating interlanguage errors (Ellis, 1984). Selinker defined this term as 'an identifiable approach by the learner to communicate with native speakers' (Ellis, 1984, p.39). It is claimed that Tarone and her associates (Tarone, 1977; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1976, as cited in Dörnyei and Scott (1997)) had provided the first definition of 'communication strategy' as well as proposing a taxonomy which was perceived as one of the most dominant in the field at that time (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Her definition of 'communication strategy' is as follows:

> Conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought. (Tarone, 1977, p. as cited in Dörnyei and Scott (1997)).

Therefore, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) argue that this definition is one of the traditional views in which researchers like Tarone looked at CSs as verbal or nonverbal assisted tools utilised to recompense gaps in second language or foreign language (L2) speakers' knowledge in the target language. Moreover, Bialystok (1990) combined the term 'communication strategies' with the general theory of second–language acquisition. Other researchers in this field have agreed with Bialystok's statement that "…Communication Strategies are an undeniable event of language use, their existence is a reliably documented aspect of communication, and their role in second language communication seems particularly salient" (Bialystok, 1990, p.116 as cited in Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). At this point, it can be seen from the above definitions stated by different researchers that communication strategies are considered significant for learners when they have insufficient of linguistic resources in their second or foreign language competence.

2.5.3 Historical overviews and trends in research on communication strategies

As mentioned in the former paragraph, the term 'communication strategies' was firstly introduced in 1972 by Selinker. Kongsom (2009) adds that in the same year Savignon also published a research report which emphasised 'coping strategies'. Kongsom (2009) mentions that the research articles of both Selinker and Savignon form the background for later studies of CSs. In 1973, Varadi identified 'message adjustment' as an early strategy employed by language learners at a European conference. Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976) published a paper which was 'a framework for communication strategies'. Varadi and Tarone, Cohen and Dumas's terminology and framework of communication strategies have been employed for later research of CSs as well. Later in 1980, a group of Hungarian learners of English and Varadi agreed to conduct a small–scale experimental research to investigate the 'message adjustment' strategy. The result from the study revealed the attempts learners used in adjusting their messages for the availability communicative resources in the target language (Kongsom, 2009).

Hence, Kongsom's study had claimed to demonstrate the first systematic analysis of strategic behaviours of L2 learners.

The first empirical and systematic study of communication strategies was from Tarone (1977). She investigated the use of CSs in the speech production of adult learners who were studying English. This study used the framework developed by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas in 1976. Also, CSs definition and characteristics of CSs were provided. Therefore, the five basic CS strategies proposed from her were: "avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime" (p.197). Kongsom (2009, p. 12) states that "Tarone's framework has been considered the most important and influential in the literature and subsequent studies of CS".

Canale and Swain (1980) and Færch and Kasper's (1983) generative works have been extensively accepted in the field of second language learning. They proposed 'problem–solving devices' in order to solve communication problems occurring from lack of linguistic knowledge. They had emphasized teaching CSs in classroom as well as giving students opportunities to employ the strategies. A significant book during this period was edited by Færch and Kasper (1983) which provided definitions of CSs, empirical studies of CSs, and problems of analyzing CSs.After the two productive works of Canale & Swain (1980) and Færch and Kasper (1983), a number of researchers during 1980s published articles on different classifications and the identification of CSs for L2 language classrooms. These articles also discussed factors impacting on learners' usage of CSs. Later on, a researcher group from Nijmegen University in the Netherlands conducted a large–scale research on communication strategies as the university had become the centre for research upon CSs. The studies covered many aspects of CSs, for example, theories of CSs, definitions and classifications. It can be concluded that researchers during this time were trying to provide definitions and categorization of CSs.

During the 1990s, many significant papers and books were produced and issued. Bialystok's book 'Communication Strategies: A Psychological Analysis of

Second Language Use' was considered as one of the most significant works. This book includes theories of CSs suggested by many CSs scholars such as Tarone (1979, 1980, 1981), Varadi (1980), Paribakht (1982, 1985), Færch & Kasper's (1983), Kellerman (1978, 1984), Corder (1977,1978,1983) and Poulisse (1987, 1989). This book investigated and explored CSs employed by children and adult learners in their L1 or L2 language which were related to language processing (Kongsom, 2009). In the last section of this book, there is discussion of teaching and learning CSs. As the book identifies the importance of the psychological process of speech production, Bialystok claims that language structure should be taught as well as practised in class instead of strategies.

After the original work from Bialystok, researchers such as Chen (1990) and Kebir (1994) examined the utilization of communication strategies which had relationships with teaching pedagogy. Moreover, Rost & Ross (1991), Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991) and Yule & Tarone (1991) studied and clarified CS theory relevant to the field. Additionally, Intaraprasert and Thuc Bui (2013) claim that many scholars have conducted empirical studies about utilization of communication strategies and its relation to several elements or factors. To illustrate; Nakatani (2006) looked at CSs and oral language proficiency, Rabab'ah and Bulut (2007) investigated CSs and native language, Paramasivam (2009) conducted a study of CS(s) applied in task type, Dong and Fang–pen (2010) investigated attitude towards the use of CSs, and Somsai (2011) conducted a research about CSs and gender. Regardless of various beliefs, perceptions, and research contexts of CSs, many researchers have categorized CSs as tools for learners to cope or deal with listening difficulties and speaking difficulties. The three basic kinds of communication strategies were identified: (1) reduction or avoidance strategies, (2) achievement strategies, and (3) time–gaining strategies (Intaraprasert and Thuc Bui, 2013).

In addition, Yaman *et al*. (2013) assert thatthe two main approaches in order to investigate CSs are the psycholinguistic view and the interactional view. According to Nakatani (2005), the psycholinguistic view considers CSs to be a cognitive process of speakers that places emphasis on production and

comprehension. Yaman *et al*. (2013) also add that the psycholinguistic view of CSs largely involves strategies for passing over learners' lexical knowledge limitations. For the perspective of interactional view, communication strategies are based on a process of interaction between learners of that particular language and their interlocutors in order to negotiate meanings (Tarone, 1980) as cited in Yaman *et al.* (2013).

2.6 Inventories and Classifications of Communication Strategies

It is clear that CSs are defined differently among researchers. For example, there are nine different taxonomies presented by Tarone (1977), Færch and Kasper (1983b), Bialystok (1983), Bialystok (1990), Paribakht (1985), Willems (1987), the Nijmegen Group which is based on Poulisse (1987) and Kellerman (1991). There are also taxonomies by Poulisse (1993), and Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b). CS research has progressed during the last two decades (Wagner and Firth, 1997 as cited in Wannaruk 2003). Therefore, it has remained a useful source until today for two reasons. First, the study of CSs helps improve scientific models of L2 learning and usage. Second, it is truly applied by L2 speakers who have struggled and spent a lot of time with language difficulties (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Moreover, Chunlan (2008) claims that the basis for many previous research projects on communication strategies were derived from Tarone (1983) and Bialystok (1990).

2.6.1 Tarone's taxonomy

As mentioned before, Tarone (1977)'s taxonomy is based on an interactional view. She identifies five main categories; avoidance, appeal for assistance, mime, borrowing and paraphrase as presented in Table 1.1 Tarone's taxonomy of CS. To begin with, learners apply the three subcategories from the paraphrase: approximation, word coinage and circumlocution to recompense their unknown L2 words. Tarone (1980) states that approximation takes place during the time learners apply a vocabulary that they know is incorrect. However, the vocabulary structure or item can share similar semantic features with the particular item from the target language so that they can satisfy the interlocutor. Regarding word coinage, it is used when learners think up or make up a new word for communicating their desire notion. The circumlocution helps learners explain elements or characteristics of an action or the object. Borrowing is composed of literal translation and language switch. Learners translate word for word from the native language for literal translation. Meanwhile, learners use the term in native language without translating the desired vocabulary item from the target language. Learners ask teachers or lecturers to help them with the correct structure or term as an appeal for assistance. Mime takes place when nonverbal language is being used in order to convey the meaning from the target vocabulary item. For avoidance strategies, learners avoid using unknown vocabulary in a topic avoidance strategy and stop in mid–utterance when they are not able to continue a conversation as a message abandonment strategy. Kongsom (2009, p.24) claims that "the taxonomy of CSs by Tarone (1983) is significant in the field as it covers most of CSs investigated in later studies as well as provide clear and illustrative examples".

Table 2.10 : Tarone's taxonomy of CSs

Paraphrase:	
Approximation :	– use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e.g. pipe for water pipe)
Word coinage:	– the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (e.g. airball for balloon)
Circumlocution:	– the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language (TL) item or structure (e.g. " She is, uh, smoking something, I don't know what's its name. That's uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of.")
Borrowing:	
Literal translation:	– the learner translates word for word from the native language (e.g. " He invites him to drink. "for" They toast one another."
Language switch:	– the learner uses the native language (NL) term without bothering to translate (e.g.balon for balloon, tirtill for caterpillar)
Appeal for Assistance:	– the learner asks for the correct term (e.g. " What is this?", what called?")
Mime :	– the learner uses nonverbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action (e.g. clapping one's hands to illustrate applause)

Avoidance:	
Topic avoidance:	– the learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the TL item or structure is not known.
Message abandonment:	– the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid–utterance.

Source : Communication strategies by Tarone (1977,1983)

2.6.2 Bialystok's taxonomy

In accordance with Bialystok's cognitive theory of language processing, she conceived or conceptualised two classes of CSs, analysis-based and control-based strategies. They are presented in this following table;

Table 2.11 : Bialystok's taxonomy of CSs

Analysis–based strategies	– conveying the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features.
(a) Circumlocution	
(b) Paraphrase	
(c) Transliteration	
(d) Word coinage	
(e) Mime	
Control–based strategies	
	– switching from the linguistic system being used and focusing instead on some other symbolic reference system that can achieve the same communication function
(a) Language switch	
(b) Ostensive definition	(i.e. pointing to real objects)
(c) Appeal for help	
(d) Mime	

Source: (Communication strategies by Bialystok, 1990, p.132–134)

According to this table, the analysis–based strategies consist of circumlocution, paraphrase, transliteration, word coinage and mime. Bialystok (1990, p.133) states that the analysis–based strategies concern "an attempt to convey the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features". The control based strategies are composed of language switch, ostensive definition, appeal for help and mime. Bialystok (1990, p.134) claims that control–based strategies concern "choosing a representational system that is possible to convey and that makes explicit information relevant to the identity of the intended concept". In other words, the speakers maintain the original intention for their conversation then look for different means of reference outside the second language (Kongsom, 2009, p.28). To compare Tarone and Bialystok's taxonomy, there are some strategies that are similar to one another: circumlocution, word coinage and mime.

2.6.3 Færch and Kasper's taxonomy

Apart from Tarone (1977, 1983) and Bialytok (1990), one of the significant categorisation of CSs was introduced by Færch and Kasper (1983), as seen in Table 2.13;

Table 2.12 : Færch and Kasper's taxonomy of CSs (1983)

(1) Avoidance

(1.1) Formal reduction :

1.1.1 Phonological

1.1.2 Morphological

1.1.3 Grammar

(1.2) Functional reduction:

1.2.1 Actional

1.2.2 Propositional

1.2.3 Modal

(2) Achievement

(2.1) Non–cooperative:

2.1.1.1 Codeswitching

2.1.1.2 Foreignizing

2.1.2 Interlanguage strategies:

2.1.2.1 Substitution

2.1.2.2 Generalization

2.1.2.3 Exemplification

2.1.2.4 Word–coining

2.1.2.5 Restructuring

2.1.2.6 Description

2.1.3 Non–linguistic strategies:

2.1.3.1 Mime

2.1.3.2 Imitation

(2.2) Cooperative:

2.2.1 Appeals

Following Færch and Kasper (1983), there are two main strategies: avoidance and achievement strategies. For the avoidance strategy, learners avoid difficult linguistic forms, that is, to have a formal reduction among the three linguistic levels (phonology, morphology and grammar). Also, learners avoid a language function among these three levels; actional, propositional or modal level. An example of functional reduction is the renunciation of a topic (Cook, 1993, p.123 as cited in Kongsom, 2009). Achievement strategies are composed of cooperative and non–cooperative strategies. The cooperative strategies require help from other people. With the non–cooperative strategies, learners try to solve their own communication problems without asking for assistance from another person, using non–linguistic strategies, interlanguage strategies and first language (L1) or third language (L3) strategies. Non–linguistic strategies are composed of sound imitation and mime. Interlanguage strategies consist of substitution, generalization, exemplification, word–coining, restructuring and description. With substitution, learners replace a word item for another. They utilize a general word for an unknown word when using a strategy. For example, the learners provide examples to illustrate the unknown word. In word–coining, learners make up or create a new word using a supposed L2 rule to recompense a gap. With restructuring, they formulate the sentence in a different way. A description strategy is used when learners attempt to describe something they are not familiar with.

At this point, there are more subtypes of communication strategies in Færch and Kasper's taxonomy than in Tarone's. However, Bialystok (1990) argues that there are some organisation problems with this taxonomy. Moreover, Færch and Kasper's (1983) product–oriented taxonomies have been criticised and discussed by various later researchers, such as its abandonment of the cognitive process.

2.6.4 The Nijmegen project and compensatory strategies

This taxonomy is based on cognitive frameworks. The compensatory strategy consists of two main classifications: conceptual and linguistic strategies, as presented in the following table;

Table 2.13 : The Nijmegen project's taxonomy of CSs

Conceptual strategies	**–** manipulating the target concept to make it expressible through available linguistic resources.
(a) Analytic strategies	**–** specifying characteristic features of the concept (e.g., "a talk uh bird" for "parrot" in circumlocution)
(b) Holistic strategies	– using a different concept which shares characteristics with the target item (e.g., "chair" for "stool" in approximation)
Linguistic strategies	– manipulating the speaker's linguistic knowledge
(a) Morphological creativity	**–** creating a new word by applying L2 morphological rules to an L2 word (e.g., " appliances" for " letters of application")
(b) Transfer	– transferring things from L1 or L3

(Communication strategies by the Nijmegen group)

For the conceptual strategies, there are two kinds which are analytic (providing particular characteristic features of the concept) and holistic (applying a term or item which can share common characteristics with the target vocabulary). With linguistic strategies, linguistic knowledge management of the speaker is required through morphological creativity or transfer strategy. Learners need to apply morphological rules in order to construct a new L2 word in the morphological creativity. The transfer strategy takes place during the time the speaker uses resemblances between native and target language.

2.6.5 Dörnyei's taxonomy

Dörnyei's taxonomy is based on the most significant strategies found in Varadi (1973), Tarone (1977), Færch and Kasper (1983) and Bialystok (1990), as seen in the following table;

Table 2.14 : Dörnyei's taxonomy of CSs; Dörnyei (1995, p.58)

Avoidance or Reduction Strategies

1. Message abandonment
2. Topic avoidance

Achievement or Compensatory Strategies

3. Circumlocution
4. Approximation
5. Use of all–purpose words
6. Word coinage
7. Use of non–linguistic means
8. Literal translation
9. Foreignizing
10. Code switching
11. Appeal for help

Stalling or Time–gaining Strategies

12. Use of fillers/ hesitation devices

As stated by Dörnyei (1995), the first two strategies, message abandonment and topic avoidance concern a revision, a diminution or complete desertion of the proposed meaning. Achievement or compensatory strategies provide option plans for learners to continue their conversation and to reach their communicative aim

through the use of the available language. The last strategy; the stalling or time–gaining strategy, can be applied to maintain the time and to open communication channels during difficult times. Kongsom (2009) suggests that time–gaining strategies help speakers to gain more time so that they can maintain their conversation with their interlocutor.

2.6.6 Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy

According to Dörnyei and Scott (1997, p.198), this taxonomy of communication strategies is classified according to "the manner of problem–management; that is, how communication strategies contribute to resolving conflicts and achieving mutual understanding". Therefore, they are divided into three basic types which are direct, indirect and interactional strategies, as presented in the following table;

Table 2.15 ： Dörnyei and Scott’s Taxonomy of CSs

Direct Strategies	**Interactional Strategies**	**Indirect Strategies**
Resource deficit–related strategies –Message abandonment –Message reduction –Message replacement –Circumlocution –Approximation –Use of all–purpose words –Word coinage –Restructuring –Literal translation –Foreignizing –Code switching –Use of similar sounding words –Mumbling –Omission –Retrieval Own–performance problem–related strategies –Self–rephrasing –Self–repair Other–performance problem–related strategies –Other–repair	Resource deficit–related strategies –Appeals for help Own–performance problem–related strategies –Comprehension check –Own–accuracy check Other–performance problem–related strategies –Asking for repetition –Asking for clarification –Asking for confirmation –Guessing –Expressing non understanding –Interpretive summary –Responses	Processing time pressure–related strategies –Use of fillers –Repetitions Own–performance problem–related strategies –Verbal strategy markers Other–performance problem–related strategies –Feigning understanding

Source: Dörnyei and Scott (1997, p.197)

Dörnyei and Scott (1997) state that direct strategies are an optional and self–sufficient means for coping with the deficiency of a word. Indirect strategies help establish mutual understanding as well as prevent communication breakdowns and maintain the communication medium. With interactional strategies, learners employ several approaches such as an appeal of help, a request for and the giving of clarification which is like performing a trouble–shooting exchange. According to Kongsom (2009), the above taxonomy of CSs by Dörnyei and Scott (1997) also presents other communication strategies. For example, asking for repetition, pretending to understand (feigning), the use of similar–sounding words, omission and mumbling. Besides, the use of fillers in the indirect strategies is claimed to prevent communication breakdowns as well as to retain it (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). As mentioned above the interactional view of communication strategies has placed the emphasis on a process of interaction between learners of that particular language and their interlocutors in order to negotiate meanings (Tarone, 1980) as cited in Yaman *et al*. (2013).

Moreover, this current research intends to examine students as language learners interacting with both native English lecturers and Thai lecturers for meaning negotiation in the classroom. Due to these reasons, the researcher has decided to adopt Tarone's (1983) interactional view and his five categories of CSs to investigate the cross–cultural communication in the Thai EFL classroom. (see figure 2.5 and 2.7). These demonstrate appropriate CSs and CCCs for Thai students, Thai lecturers and native English lecturers.

2.7 Studies on communication strategies in Thailand

This section looks at CSs research which has been conducted in Thailand. According to Kongsom (2009), most research studies support investigation of CSs that are related to various factors such as tasks and proficiency level. It is seen in Table 2.16 that most studies tried to involve strategy in order to improve task performance. These empirical studies are reviewed as follows.

Wongsawang (2001) examined the use of communication for culture–specific notions in L2. She applied communication strategy taxonomies developed by Tarone (1980), Bialystok (1990) and Dörnyei (1995) in this investigation. There were thirty Thai speakers as participants. All of them were in the intermediate English level. They were required to perform two tasks which were composed of culture–specific notions. For the first task, they had to explain to an American friend about paying respect to their teachers as a part of Thai ceremony. The second task combined two parts; retelling story and presenting the notion of 'make merit'. The research focused on 14 concepts which were considered problematic. The findings demonstrated that approximation and circumlocution were the learners preferred choices of strategies. This investigation proposed that the concept of which L2 speakers were familiar with did not assist them in coping with their problem in communication. Even though, the tasks were created to be as realistic as possible, the fact that the participants did not have any interlocutors may affect their choice of CS.

Table 2.16 ： Studies on CSs in Thailand (taken from Kongsom (2009 p. 53 –54)), and adapted from Metcalfe and Noom–Ura (2013, p. 71–72))

Researchers	**Subjects**	**Method**	**CS Taxonomies Adoption**	**Findings**
Wongsawang (2001)	30 Thai native speakers with intermediate English proficiency	–two tasks contain culturespecific notions	Taone (1980), Bialystok (1990),Dörnyei (1995)	– circumlocution and approximation were the most preferred strategies
Wannaruk (2003)	75 Thai students at Suranaree University of Technology	–interviews	Dörnyei (1995)	– the most frequently used CS was modification devices – students used different CSs to different degrees of their language level
Weerarak (2003)	16 first year students majoring English	– classroom observation – speaking tasks	* cannot be found	– the participants used five types of CSs: modification devices, target language–based strategy, nonlinguistic strategy, L1–based strategy and avoidance strategy. –The less able group used CSs more frequently than the more able one.

Researchers	Subjects	Method	CS Taxonomies Adoption	Findings
Pornpibul (2005)	200 second–year Thai undergraduate students	–questionnaire – video tapes of three different tasks –retrospective interviews	Brown 2000–adapted from Dörnyei (1995)	–participants often employed appeal for help, approximation, avoidance, non–linguistic signals, circumlocution, and code–switching
Kongsom (2009)	62 fourth year Thai students majoring in Engineering	–self–report strategy questionnaire – attitudinal questionnaire –four speaking tasks – retrospective protocols	Tarone (1983)'s five main categories Dörnyei (1995) Faerch and Kasper (1983)–e.g. code switching, foreignizing, word–coining, non–linguistic strategies and appeal for help.	– students considered pause fillers, hesitation devices, approximation, self–repair and circumlocution beneficial after receiving a teaching of CS.
Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009)	300 Thai students	– self–report questionnaires –speaking task inventory	– risk–takingand risk avoidance CSsmodified from Corder (1983), Dörnyei and Cohen (2002), and Nakatani (2005, 2006)	– high proficiency learners were likely to apply more risk taking techniques : social–affective, fluency–oriented, and help–seeking strategies. – low proficiency were using more risk avoidance: time gaining strategies.

Researchers	Subjects	Method	CS Taxonomies Adoption	Findings
Prapobratanakul and Kangkun (2011)	– fourth grade Thai students	– speech production task (object description)	Tarone (1981) Faerch and Kasper's (1983b)	– Paralinguistic strategies: (e.g. gestures, facial expressions) were frequently applied. – Intralinguistic strategies: (e.g. circumlocution and approximation) were also occasionally applied by the students.
Metcalfe and Noom–Ura (2013)	104 first–year Thai undergraduate students at Chulalongkorn University.	– self–reporting questionnaires	– Nakatani (2006)'s Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) adapted from Dörnyei and Scott(1997)	– message reduction, alteration and negotiation for meaning were applied by students respectively.

Wannaruk (2003) examined the use of communication strategies among students at Suranaree University of Technology according to communication strategies taxonomies categorized by Dörnyei (1995). There were seventy–five Thai students majoring in agriculture, engineering and information technology that took part in this research. The students were gathered into three groups in accordance with their oral proficiency level of high, moderate and low. Data were collected from students' interviews by native English lecturers. After that, the data were analyzed using mixed methods. The results disclosed that modification devices were the most frequently used CS, whereas the other strategies used were non–linguistic strategies, L1–based strategies, target language–based strategies and avoidance strategies respectively. It was also found that the students applied various CSs to their degree of language proficiency. It was claimed that Wannaruk's study only emphasized the interview task and the relationship between strategy usage and oral proficiency. Thus, Kongsom (2009) suggested that other factors like attitudes and learners' personal characteristics should be looked at for a further study.

The communication strategy research by Weeraruk (2003) was to investigate oral communication strategies used by first year students at Rajabhat institute in Thailand. The students who participated in the study were majoring in English. They were separated into two groups; the more able and the less able group according to their speaking test scores. The main research method was classroom observation. Apart from that, the observation form and four speaking tasks were employed as research tools. The speaking tasks were: explaining the meaning of words, describing pictures, having conversation and having oral interview. The result revealed that students employed five types of CSs which were avoidance strategy, modification devices, L1–based strategy, non–linguistic strategy and target language–based strategy. Also, the less able group employed communication strategies more often compared to the more able group. Similar to Wannaruk's (2002) research, Weeraruk's study only placed an emphasis on the relationship between strategy usage and oral proficiency of the students or learners. Moreover, Kongsom (2009) suggested that this study should examine

other factors which might have impacts on learners' choice of communication strategies.

Pornpibul (2005) examined how Thai undergraduate students employed communication strategies in order to communicate in English. He utilised Brown (2000) communication strategies taxonomies adapted from Dörnyei (1995) to investigate CSs found in this study. The number of participants was two hundred second–year students who were willing to attend a speaking and listening course at Thammasart University. The research methods employed were questionnaires, videotapes recording three tasks, retrospective interviews and observations. The results suggested that the strategies used in order of frequency were (1) appeal for help, (2) approximation, (3) avoidance, (4) nonlinguistic signals, (5) circumlocution, and (6) code–switching. The findings also revealed that the high achievement group of students employed circumlocution more frequently. On the other hand, the lower achievement one used strategies such as code–switching, appeal for help and avoidance. These strategies are regarded as less dependent on the knowledge of English strategies. Different factors which potentially influenced students' choice of communication strategies were disclosed in the findings. Eventually, the researcher made some comments for the instructors to raise students' awareness of applying advance communication strategies in classroom. Therefore, the comparison of data was taken from a multi–method approach involving the triangulation of the findings of the strategies which were employed by students.

Kongsom (2009) carried out an investigation to address a problem regarding the impact of teaching CSs to Thai students learning English at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok, Thailand. This interventionist study collected both quantitative and qualitative data. Kongsom adopted three CS taxonomies in her work: Tarone (1983)'s five main categories, Dörnyei (1995), and Faerch and Kasper (1983)–"e.g. code switching, foreignizing, word–coining, non–linguistic strategies and appeal for help" (Kongsom, 2009, p.26) There were sixty four fourth year students majoring in Engineering participated in the study. The participants had a 12–week learning and training of 'communication

strategy–based instruction'. After that, twelve students were inquired to accomplish retrospective protocols and four speaking tasks. As mentioned in Table 2, data had been collected from: (1) retrospective protocols, (2) transcription data of four distinct speaking tasks, (3) self–report strategy questionnaire, and (4) attitudinal questionnaire. The findings revealed that instructions of communication strategies were beneficial to the students. They also expressed good feelings as well as positive attitudes toward the instructions of communication strategies. Moreover, students had considered pause fillers, hesitation devices, approximation, self–repair and circumlocution beneficial for learners after receiving a teaching of communication strategies instruction.

Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009) conducted a research in order to address an issue of low–ability students in choosing different types of communication strategies that might have an impact on their communication proficiency. This study adopted a various classification system based on the utilisation of risk–taking strategies versus risk–avoidance strategies which were made up of nine subcategories modified from Corder (1983), Dörnyei and Cohen (2002), and Nakatani (2005, 2006). There were three hundred Thai university students who took part in this investigation. One hundred students were chosen to participate in the 'Strategies Used in Speaking Task Inventory'. The researchers claimed that these strategies had been developed for eliciting learners' usage of CS responses. The results after collecting quantitative data showed that Thai students who posessed low English proficiency were likely to apply risk–avoidance strategies or techniques; the use of time gaining strategies. These students also needed support so that they could employ risk–taking techniques; for example, circumlocution, help–seeking, fluency–oriented, and social–affective strategies.

Prapobratanakul and Kangkun (2011) examined communication strategies applied by young Thai students. Tarone's (1981) and Faerch and Kasper's (1983b) taxonomies were adopted for the investigation. There were twenty fourth grade Thai students who participated in this research. The research method employed was video recordings of speech production tasks in which students were inquired to explain pictures of 8 various objects to their peer or partner. The findings

demonstrated that the young Thai learners utilized paralinguistic strategies, paraphrasing, code–switching and avoidance strategies respectively. They also made a notice to the fact that: not only these low–proficiency Thai learners could apply communication strategies such as code–switching and paralinguistic strategies but adults also utilized the same types of communication strategies.

Metcalfe and Noom–Ura (2013) examined communication strategies used by Thai students regarding their general English proficiency and oral fluency. There were 104 first year undergraduate students at Chulalongkorn University, Thailand who took part in this study. The Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) or it is known as self–reporting questionnaires adapted from Nakatani (2006) were used in order to assess communication strategy applied by Thai students. The findings of the study pointed that the students often applied message alteration and reduction as well as negotiation for meaning whilst listening strategies respectively. Besides, low proficiency students frequently applied message abandonment and less active listener strategies. On the other hand, high proficiency students tended to apply circumlocution, negotiation for meaning whilst speaking, fluency–oriented and social–affective strategies. Moreover, Metcalfe and Noom–Ura (2013) also suggested that it would be very useful if there will be further research into the impact of communication strategies training especially for low proficiency groups of students.

To sum up, most studies on communication strategies of Thai students were employed by questionnaires and speaking tasks as the main research tools. Most of these recent researches also disclosed that Thai students use various communication strategies in accordance with their language levels. Meanwhile the recent studies present useful findings on the overviews of communication strategies applied by students as participants. It is necessary to systematically examine how Thai undergraduate students apply communication strategies and cross–cultural communication strategies in the real Thai EFL classroom settings. Therefore, findings and knowledge received from such studies can lead to a proper development of communicative capability amongst Thai learners.

2.8 Framework theories of this study

2.8.1 Social constructivist theory

2.8.1.1 Constructivist and social constructivist theory

To understand social constructivist theory, it is crucial to comprehend the term 'learning' in relation to constructivist theory. Constructivists' refer to learning as "the result of mental construction" (Pritchard, 2014, p.18). In other words, learning occurs during the time new data or information has been built into and inserted into the current construction of one's knowledge, skills and comprehension. Constructivists believe that individuals learn best during the time they build their own comprehension or understanding.

2.8.1.2 Piaget

One of the most influential early advocates of the constructivist theory is Jean Piaget (1896–1980). Piaget is renowned as a psychologist of child development and learning. Many teachers or lecturers are introduced to Piaget's developmental stage theory (see table 2.9.8). His theory starts with 'age–related' developmental stages. According to Piaget, children's cognitive system is restricted to motor reactions presented in their birth. Children learn to particularise exercises and actions to different incidents or situations. Later on, they utilise those activities and actions to enhance complicated behaviour patterns. At the preoperational stage, children are able to obtain the capability to symbolise their thoughts or ideas as well as to involve mental imagery by the use of language. At the concrete operational stage, Piaget suggests that children start to learn from various aspects, although they are not able to cope with conceptual issues. At the last stage which is 'formal operations', children are able to think abstractly and logically. Therefore, Piaget claims that this stage is the final stage of intelligent progress or intellectual development. Following Gutterman (2014), Piaget's cognitive developmental theory has given a huge impact on other work related to the developmental psychology field. Piaget also presented another work which

discussed how new data is managed by learners of all ages; that is, an explanation of the assimilation and accommodation aspects.

Having viewed the table, it is seen that Piaget looked at "the growing child as a 'lone scientist'" (Pritchard, 2014). That is, a child can expose and explore the surroundings by himself. According to Alanazi (2016), many scholars or educationists have adopted or embraced constructivist theory. However, several critiques have been developed to criticize this theory. Having been proposed by Piaget, the knowledge people interact with is attached to schemas of prior knowledge where learners build knowledge. This knowledge, therefore, is grouped or formed by learners' own experiences. Thus, this knowledge construction differs among learners. Kirschner, Sweller and Clark (2006) have developed an argument on constructivist theory. These researchers comment that constructivist theory advocates a teaching style with minimal or unguided instructions for students. Kirschner, Sweller and Clark (2006, p.6) state that learners can become "lost and frustrated" when they learn with minimal instructions. Another important critique of Piaget's work is the lack of social setting and cultural effect which may have an impact on cognitive development. According to McLeod (2018), Piaget places an emphasis or concentration on the universal stages of biological maturation and cognitive development without considering cultural factors and social setting. Alanazi (2016, p.2) adds that another concern or critique of constructivism is the need for learners to link or connect their knowledge to concrete or visible objects; constructivist theory does not support this learning-related need. Taking into account the constructivist theory suggested by Piaget, it can be seen that constructivism remains a powerful force in the field of education as it leads to social constructivist theory. Hence, social constructivist theory has emphasised interactions between learners and others. Pritchard suggests that 'others' can appear in various forms of the social interaction dimension.

Table 2.17 : Piaget's stages of development

Period	Age	Characteristics of the stage
Sensorimotor	0–2 years	Common spontaneous behaviour yields to capability to construct schemas and to make string of behaviour and patterns. After time passes, a child can perceive that there are an existence of objects though they are invisible.
Preoperational	2–7 years	Children are intrinsically self–centred. They cannot think about incidents from different perspective. They begin to use symbols representing their ideas. Creativity also starts to emerge.
Concrete operational	7–11 years	Children can think logically regarding physical functions. They are able to distinguish two identical events even when one has emerged some changes.
Formal operations	11 + years	Children can think abstractly and assumably. However, they are restricted by lack of width and depth in knowledge learning.

Source: Adapted from Piaget's stages of development as cited in Pritchard (2014, p.20)

2.8.1.3 Social constructivist theory

Lev Vygotsky (1896–1934) is the main advocate of social constructivist theory. This Russian psychologist's work was completed at the beginning of the twentieth century, however, his work was not accessible in the Western European countries until many years later. Social constructivism has given a main priority to language in the intellectual development process. In other words, people's speeches or dialogues are thought of, improved or developed and shared. A contribution to a dialogue can occur through the construction and application of one's prior and

recent knowledge, understanding (schemas) and new ideas. A parent or a teacher is often considered and thought to be 'a more knowledgeable other' because of their experiences of the world. On the other hand, a more knowledgeable other does not need to be only a parent or in a position of 'teacher–student' relationship. Therefore, learning can take place in informal, casual situations leading by acquaintances, young relatives or companions. Most learning does not need to occur in school; having social interaction with others, can also lead to a type of learning. The exchange of ideas, perspectives and thoughts taking place as part of the contribution of various contexts of a conversation or a discussion between two people will bring a better comprehension of the conversation's topic.

To sum up, there are differences between social constructivist and sociocultural theory, though; these two theories were originated from the same proponent–Lev Vygotsky. Social constructivism proposed that knowledge can be individually built and socially mediated. By taking part in a wide range of exercises with other people, learners internalize the results or the outcomes after working with one another. These results made by the learners can also be new knowledge and strategies (Woolfolk, 2005). Sociocultural theory involves and places an emphasis on the development of cooperative dialogues between learners and more knowledgeable others (members) of society. Thus, learners will be able to acquire ways of behaving and thinking; that is, the culture of their community via these interactions. This research has selected 'sociocultural theory' for its main framework theory because the study significantly involves sociocultural interaction between teachers (Thai, British, American) lecturers and Thai students in the Thai EFL classroom. As the research has sought for the effective cross–cultural communication strategies used by both lecturers and learners, this 'sociocultural theory' framework is capable of describing how Thai learners as well as their lecturers acquire paths of thinking and behaving while communicating and interacting with each other.

2.8.2 Sociocultural theory

Sociocultural theory (SCT) was introduced by Russian psychologist L.S. Vygotsky and his associates. Chunlan (2008) states that Vygotsky's work stresses man's intelligence which begins with interpersonal interactions. Interpersonal interactions are also rooted in the collective environment. Vygotsky (1987) as cited in Chunlan (2008) suggests a theory of learning which stresses learning through cooperative activity. He claims that a human being's ability for feeling, thinking, communicating and acting vitally depend upon the artefacts and practices which are developed through time within specific cultures apart from his or her biological legacy. Rogoff and McDermott (1993) as cited in Chunlan (2008) support the proposition that learning development takes place during the time human beings involve in social activities.

According to Ratner (2002), human mental operating is a fundamental mediated process that is systematized by cultural concepts, artefacts and activities. In this framework, human beings are perceived to use cultural artefacts and to invent new artefacts in order to manage their lives and developmental activity. According to Lantolf and Thorne (2006), the use of language, structure and organisation are basic resources of mediation. In other words, "development processes take place through participation in cultural, linguistic, and in institutional contexts like schooling, organized sport activities, and work places" (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006, p.197). In addition, SCT explains that most significant structures of man's cognitive motion maturate during interaction within material and social surroundings.

2.8.2.1 The theory and its constructs

Vygotsky accepted that the human mind was composed of a lower–level neurobiological base and higher level cultural tools such as logic, rationality, categorization, numeracy, literacy and language. These higher–level cultural tools act as a device between the environment and the person as well as acting as a mediator in order to create relationships between people and the community–material world. When a child learns language, words not only perform to separate

actions and specific objects but they also serve to remodel life knowledge into cultural knowledge and notions. For a child, actions and thinking at their early stages of development rely on adults' words. Luria and Yudovich (1972) as cited in Lantolf and Thorne (2006) claim that the child's thinking and actions which are subordinated to adult utterance help elevate the child's physical and mental activity to a higher qualitative stage of development. Luria and Yudovich also believe that the subordination of child's actions and thinking to adult utterance leads to "long chain of formation of complex aspects of his conscious and voluntary activity" (p.24). Having to rely on adult utterance, the children can acquire the specific language utilized by other community's members such as older children and adults. Eventually, children will use this particular language to control or regulate their behaviour. That is, the children improve their ability to manage their activity using language as a medium when taking part in physical and mental activities. The process in which children's activity is regulated or primarily subordinated by others comprises of three stages.

2.8.2.2 Regulation

The first stage is termed as object–regulation which can be applied by children at early age. Children in this stage are frequently directed by or utilized objects in their surroundings in order to think (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006). To illustrate, a very young child can be easily attracted by a colourful, bigger or adjacent toy, therefore, he or she might refuse to abide by parents' requirement. In this case, it can be said that a child is being controlled or regulated by substances. Moreover, children at a later age tend to rely on substances or objects to support their thinking. For example, children who learn Mathematics try to use blocks carrying out simple addition in their mind. The second stage is known as other–regulation (Lantolf and Throne, 2006). This stage composes of explicit and implicit mediation which involve various assistance levels, instructions and scaffolding from peers, siblings, parents, teachers, coaches and etc. The final stage, or self–regulation, talks about the capacity of a child to perform activities with less or without external guidance. Self–regulation is provided through a process called 'internalization'–the process which external guidance was once a resource and is

mentally accessible for the individual (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006). However, self–regulation is an uncertain state. Native speakers might also have to re–enter the first and second stage (object–regulation or other regulation) when they encounter challenging communicative conditions. For example, adult native speakers of a specific language can create incoherent and ill–formed speeches under pressure (Frawley, 1997). In this illustration, language users might request some help from other people or from resources such as a dictionary, a thesaurus or some sort of specific text book. To sum up, Frawley (1997) claims that these three stages: object–regulation, other–regulation and self–regulation become "symmetrical and recoverable, an individual can traverse this sequence at will, given the demands of the task" (p.98).

Vygotsky (1978) suggested that human beings possess the ability to utilize symbols as tools. Language is the most influential and prevalent cultural artefact that humans have in order to connect to each other, themselves and the world. Language not only can function as a tool that supports social activity, but it also provides one of the significant means called 'inner–speech' to systematize one's mental activities: thinking, reasoning and remembering (Chunlan, 2008).

2.8.2.3 Mediation through a second language

Lantolf and Thorne (2006) initiate a question "To what extent are we able to use L2(s) to mediate our mental activity?" They believe that the first way people utilize language to control our mental operation is via private speech. According to Faigenbuam (1992, p.182) as cited in Jones (2007, p.169), Vygotsky perceived private speech as:

> …the link between early socially communicative speech and mature inner speech. Social speech is vocalized speech addressed and intellectually adapted to others, and inner speech is subvocalized speech directed and adapted to oneself, whereas private speech is vocalized speech addressed and adapted to oneself. Thus, private speech is neither social communication nor silent thought, but vocalized thought.

Vygotsky also mentioned that being abbreviated and informative are counted as the main features of private speech. Frawley (1997) specifies that various languages propose their speakers a variety of linguistic alternatives for completing mental motion. Everyday expressions seen as private speech for L1 English speakers such as “Oh!”, “Next”, “OK” and “There” etc., indicate that these words are derived from their usage in social interaction.

2.8.2.4 Imitation

According to Lantolf and Throne (2006), researchers of child language have lately discovered that imitation becomes a significant part in language acquisition. According to Nelson and Speidel (1989), imitation is a complicated device which involves neurological processing and motor. It is referred to as a self–selective and intentional behaviour of the child. Particular features of imitations which are connected with internalization that is: the imitation process does not take place spontaneously after a provided model emerges in linguistic environment of learners. Imitative process can be delayed and occurred one or two days afterward.

2.8.2.5 The zone of proximal development

The zone of proximal development (ZPD) has given significant influence on different research fields which are applied linguistics, developmental psychology and education. Vygotsky (1978, p.86) refers to ZPD as:

> …the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.

According to Lantolf and Throne (2006), ZPD demonstrates via its affirmation that what learners can do with assistance then later they will be able to do by themselves. Vygotsky (1978) also believes that with the ZPD, “human learning

presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life of those around them" (p.88). Additionally, he was especially interested in the impact that the schooling system had on the cognitive development of the child. The participation in school activity can set learners to be involved in institutionally and socio–culturally learning formed practices. Moreover, ZPD is viewed as a framework of the process of development as well as a conceptual device that an instructor or teacher can make use of to comprehend children's apparent abilities in their early stage of their learning.

2.8.3 Engeström's activity theory

2.8.3.1 Generations and principles of activity theory

In 1920s and early 1930s, cultural–historical activity theory was proposed by Lev Vygotsky (1978). Later on, the theory was developed by Vygotsky's colleague–Alexei Leont'ev (1978, 1981). According to Engeström (2009), the activity theory has also developed through three research generations (Engeström, 1996 as cited in Engeström, 2009). The first generation was during the period of Vygotsky; the concept of 'mediation' emerged at this time. This concept had turned into a famous triangular model that presented a direct link amongst stimulus (S), response (R) and mediated act (X) see figure 2.3. Hence, Vygotsky's concept of "cultural mediation of actions is commonly expressed as the triad of subject, object, and mediating artifact" (Engeström, 2009, p.54). The limitation of the first generation triangular model was the fact that the analysis unit merely placed a focus onto individuals.

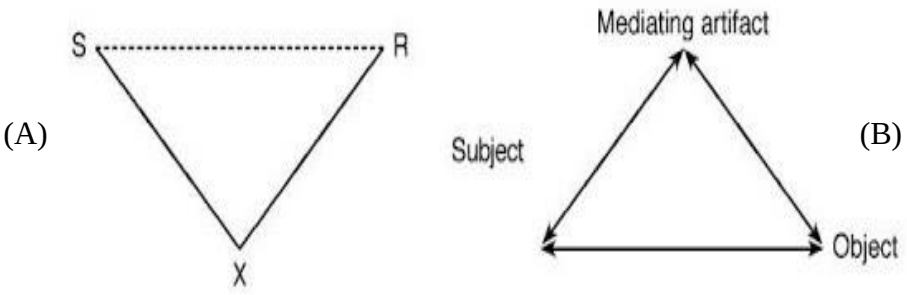


Figure 2.3 : (A) Vygotsky's model of mediated act and
(B) its common reformulation (Vygotsky, 1978, p.40)

The second generation emerged during the period of Leont'ev (1981) as cited in Engeström (2009), however, Leont'ev only explained the significant distinction between a collective activity and action of an individual. This second generation triangular model was expanded by Engeström in 1987. It is seen that the upmost triangle of Figure 2.4 can be viewed as the 'tip of the iceberg' symbolizing group actions and individual rooted in a collective activity system (Engeström, 2009).

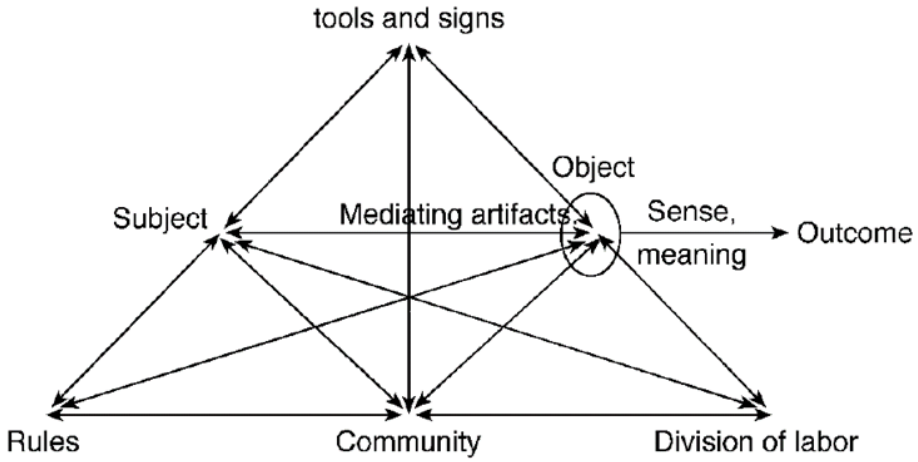


Figure 2. 4 : The structure of a human activity system
(Engeström, 1987, p.78)

Having viewed Engeström's activity theory and its triangular model of generation one and two, it can be indicated that people can meet their social needs in order to

complete aims or to act upon certain motives by learning and working together. People utilise tools as well as improving them to assist humans' activities. Tools can be ranged from hammers to computers though "…the most complex tool of all is 'language' " (Kain and Wardle, 2005, p.1). To efficiently help solve issues or problems, people improve and create new tools. Those tools are used to suit people's needs. They also change different tools for various purposes. Activity theory originated from Russia in the early 20th century. This psychological theory views all perspectives of activity that has been developed from time to time by social interactions of its people and tools.

In a society, different kinds of activities are distinguished by tools, repertoires of tasks which people utilise to reach their goals and particular knowledge. To demonstrate, in a hospital, people can recognize medical practice according to outcomes that they can meet for patience health–care demands as well as its participants which are doctors and nurses. Also, we recognize the practice of medicine by treatment choices, human physiology knowledge, diseases and instruments such as surgical and medical ones. In a university, we can recognize it according to its participants especially teachers and students, its outcomes to assist learning and its instruments or tools; such as course books, whiteboards etc. The activity theory provides us a useful comprehension of the way people in various communities fulfill their life activities.

2.8.3.2 Activity systems

According to Kain and Wardle (1997), the activity system is defined as a community or a group of people who share things in common such as object, motives and different kinds of tools to act upon the object and to comprehend the motive. The activity systems are composed of: ongoing, objected–directed, historically conditioned, dialectically–structured, tool–mediated and human interaction (Russell, 1997). To begin with, a demonstration of the ongoing is referred to the university which is seen as an activity system of a long period that started in the past and will go on in the future (Kain and Wardle, 1997). The object-directed can be illustrated by an example of the university; the aim of its

activity is learning which will be completed through research and instruction. Historically conditioned activity systems come alive due to practices in history. Things that people do today can be described by the university's mission and history of the institutions. Dialectical structure can be explained in terms of system relationships which can depend on each other. For instance, when the university started using iPads as a tool in education, researchers, teachers and students had to change their tasks in relation to learning activity. The 'tool as mediator' is illustrated by people who use different kinds of tools to complete activities. These tools can be objects, for example, systems of symbols or computers. In the university, teachers and students utilise textbooks, course books, computers, laboratory equipment, syllabi and other tools to achieve their objectives of learning. The types of tools can shape the way students engage in classroom activities and the way they think about them. To demonstrate, the course syllabus can be seen as a tool to help organise the work in the classroom for the lecturers and the students, which can impact on how students take part in activities of learning. Human interaction results in how people work with each other by utilising tools to accomplish outcomes. At the university, students, lecturers, researchers, administrators and other staff collaborate with each other using tools in order to fulfil the learning outcomes.

Activity systems are limited by rules and divisions of labour. In the university, there are rules for students to follow. In other words, rules can be called as 'mutual agreement or protocol' regarding how activities will continue in order to reach the learning outcomes. The division of labour can be seen in the university, for example, lecturers are responsible for evaluating students' assignments, students are also responsible for attending the class and administrators are responsible for displaying students' grade on their transcripts.

In conclusion, this study also adopts Engeström's activity theory for its significant framework in order to explain the activity systems of communications and interactions between lecturers and students in the Thai University where the research was taking place. In this study context, English and Thai language becomes mediated tools for learners and teachers in communicating with one

another. The activity theory is not only able to model the Thai EFL classrooms where teachers and students share many things in common. This includes their goals, taking turns while interacting, making use of classroom rules and regulations, but it also provides clear pictures of how cross–cultural communication strategies have been applied in solving communication breakdowns or having miscommunication in the classroom.

As mentioned by Westbrook *et al.* (2013), Siraj-Blatchford, Sylva, Muttock, Gilden and Bell (2002) and Hinkel (2006) as cited in Khamkhien (2010), pedagogic or teaching strategies are perceived as significant elements or tools which can be utilised and adapted especially in British and Thai EFL classrooms. These authors also assert that pedogogic techniques or strategies help students and teachers understand each other better when using communication as a mediated tool in classrooms. Therefore, it is necessary to refer or justify pedagogy, pedagogic approaches, pedagogic strategies and teaching practices as part of possible effective communication strategies.

2.9 Meanings of pedagogy, pedagogic approaches, pedagogic strategies and teaching practices

In this section, meanings of pedagogy, especially in the UK and Thailand, are defined by different pedagogic approaches that underlie teaching-learning practices, beliefs, techniques and strategies across cultures. Having perceived educational backgrounds of the UK and Thailand, it is necessary to comprehend teachers' thoughts, perspectives and opinions. Through the use of traditional or current pedagogic approaches in the individualistic culture (the UK) and collectivistic culture (Thailand), teaching practices are considered key elements in producing effective teaching techniques, communication strategies as well as cross-cultural communication strategies applied by teachers and lecturers in classrooms. Therefore, all of these significant elements are discussed below.

2.9.1 Meanings of pedagogy in the UK and Thailand

The term pedagogy can be defined in various ways. Alexander (2001, p.540) proposes that pedagogy is composed of "teachers' ideas, beliefs, attitudes, knowledge and understanding about the curriculum, the teaching and learning process and their students, and which impact on their 'teaching practices', that is, what teachers actually think, do and say in the classroom". The notion of pedagogy stated by Alexander as presented above provides a starting point to further discussions regarding the meaning of pedagogy. Alexander (2001) asserts that different pedagogies are strengthened by three basic value positions which include individualism (an emphasis on the child, personalised and autonomous learning), community (an emphasis on the collaboration, group, rights and responsibilities) as well as collectivism (an emphasis on the classroom as a whole, inclusivity and cohesion).

Another definition is that put forward by Siraj–Blatchford, Sylva, Muttock, Gilden and Bell (2002), pedagogy has been defined as:

> …the instructional techniques and strategies that allow learning to take place. It refers to the interactive process between teacher/practitioner and learner and it is also applied to include the provision of some aspects of the learning environment (including the concrete learning environment, and the actions of the family and community).

As in the context of Early Years education, it can be viewed that the effective pedagogy proposed by Siraj–Blatchford, Sylva, Muttock, Gilden and Bell (2002) puts a focus on effective pedagogical strategies, emerging from interactions between teachers and students, as being supports to Early Years learning and developments. In particular, pedagogical strategies or techniques are seen as enabling learning tools to assure a good start for children at school. Furthermore, Siraj–Blatchford, Sylva, Muttock, Gilden and Bell (2002, p.27) comment that "effective Early Years pedagogy must still be 'instructive". In other words, instruction is considered to involve effective tools or means which help young

learners to achieve educational aims while maintaining their learning processes within the classroom (Creemers, 1994). Additionally, Siraj–Blatchford *et al.*'s definition of pedagogy is relevant to pedagogy's definition of university education as it refers to social interactions between teachers/practitioners and learners within learning environments based in communities; this can be applied to universities. Siraj–Blatchford *et al.* (2002) also mention that the role of teachers/practitioners in early years education includes building relationships with learners/children and their parents, constructing and making plans for learning curricula and environments, offering or providing supports for child development, learning and evaluating or assessing their attainment whilst making plans for their further steps; all these aspects reflect what lecturers do with their students in universities. According to Learning and Teaching Scotland (LTS) (2005), pedagogy is defined as teaching, learning and improvement or development influenced by political, social, cultural values as these elements are underpinned by the practical and robust theoretical bases. Another perspective is provided by the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, (2009a, p.42) who define pedagogy as "the function or work of teaching: the art or science of teaching, education instructional methods". Pedagogy is also seen as 'dynamic process' influenced by beliefs, dialogues and theories which are performed and comprehended by teachers and students through their real setting interactions (Leach and Moon, 2008).

In Thailand, the term pedagogy refers to good practices (Sinlarat, Rachapaetayakom and Swatevacharkul, 2013). According to Jaitiang (2010), pedagogy in Thai contexts refers to any approaches that teachers or lecturers use in classrooms to support their students acquiring knowledge. She further proposes that pedagogy can be defined in terms of interaction processes amongst teachers/lecturers and learners. These processes, therefore, influence learners in changing their behaviours in accordance with learning aims or goals through the application of teachers/lecturers' arts of teaching. According to the Office of the National Education Commission (ONEC) (2001, 2008) education in Thailand is based on the concept or principle that every learner is accepted as being significant, is competent to learn and can self–improve. Core curricula are emphasised in basic education, as educational institutions designate curricular

essence which is relevant to the community and society's needs (ONEC, 2001, 2008). Moreover, ONEC (2001, 2008) states that academic development, professionalim and research are emphasised in higher education curricula. Hence, it can be said that Thai education is based on three main principles: (1) lifelong education for everyone, (2) participation by all parties in society's communities and (3) continuous improvement or development in learning in all disciplines (ONEC, 2001; Punthumasen, 2007).

At this point, it can be summarised that the various meanings of pedagogy in the UK are different in terms of levels of education and their foci. Creemer (1994), Siraj–Blatchford, Sylva, Muttock, Gilden and Bell (2002) define meanings of pedagogy according to the Early Years. Meanwhile, other definitions of pedagogy such as Alexander (2001), Leach and Moon (2008) have given an emphasis on teaching practices of teachers. Moreover, the definition of pedagogy stated by the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (2009a) mentions education instructional methods as part of pedagogy which resonates with Siraj–Blatchford, Sylva, Muttock, Gilden and Bell (2002)'s proposal of instruction as one of the effective teaching techniques. However, the definition of pedagogy followed by LTS (2005) has its main focus on political, social, and cultural values which bring influences on teaching and learning. Having perceived meanings of pedagogy in Thailand, it can be summed up that pedagogy in Thai contexts has placed the emphasis on teaching practices and teaching approaches, leading to knowledge acquirement of Thai students. Additionally, the definition of pedagogy is referred to or based on teachers/lecturers interactions as part of learning processes. Hence, a similarity of pedagogy meanings in the UK and Thailand relates to the teaching practices of teachers and lecturers. Having seen three main principles of Thai and British education, it can be said that their emphasis is similar in terms of collaboration of community in order to construct knowledge for learners in society. However, autonomous or individual learning is highly emphasised in the UK compared to Thailand.

Having conducted a case study which was underpinned and influenced by Engeström's sociocultural based activity theory, the definition of pedagogy is in

accordance with Jaitiang (2010), and is applicable to Thai EFL university classrooms. As pedagogy refers to interaction processes amongst lecturers and learners; meanwhile mediated tools are applied by lecturers in order to change unwanted behaviours such as students remaining silent in classrooms, not being proactive or not responding to lecturers' questions so that they could engage and participate more. With the application of lecturers' arts of teaching, the utilization of pedagogical strategies by lecturers emerged. In activity theory, three significant elements or factors of the activity system's triangle are political, social and cultural aspects; the interactions within and between them result in tensions revealed in classroom interactions and communication. This is reflected in the definition of pedagogy stated by Education Scotland (2005) as it also regards teaching and learning embedded within the practical elements resulting from political, social and cultural values or aspects.

2.9.2 Pedagogic approaches

This section outlines the conceptual approaches mainly between teacher-centred pedagogic approach and learner-centred pedagogic approach. Teacher-centred pedagogic approach is based on several methods, for example, audiolingual, grammar-translation, rote memorization, chorus answers and whole-class lectures. Significantly, these various methods are parts of behaviourist learning theory which is one of the dominant learning theories. Furthermore, learner-centred approach is explained in the section due to a shift from teacher-centred pedagogy to learner-centred pedagogy occured in Thailand as stated in Thai education reforms in 2001 to 2008. Learner-centred pedagogic approach also relates to various terms such as active, participatory, student–centred and constructivist learner-centred pedagogic approach. Hence, more comprehensive descriptions of these approaches are justified below;

Teachers' thoughts, perspectives or opinions are demonstrated in their overall pedagogic approaches, gathered from the types of learning and teaching experiences when they were school students themselves. In the UK, the

approaches are developed in initial teacher education (ITE) and continuing professional development (CPD) as well as those indicated in the current school curriculum. According to UNESCO (2016), Thai educational reforms in 2001 to 2008 altered the traditional pedagogical approach of a content–based curriculum to a modern standards–based approach. In other words, recent reforms of curriculum in Thailand have changed from 'teacher–centred' pedagogic approaches to 'learner–', 'student–' centred or 'active' learning approaches. Pedagogical approaches are emphasized to an extent from teacher–centred to learner–centred pedagogy (UNESCO, 2014). These two approaches often complement each other in accordance to educational aims or goals' realisation. To demonstrate, it might be useful to present a new theme in classroom using a teacher–centred approach. Also, the learner–centred approach will facilitate and allow students to expose new concepts and improve profound comprehension. Westbrook *et al*. (2013) comments that teacher/lecture–centred pedagogy places the teacher at the centre of the learning process; this approach generally puts an emphasis or relies on several methods. Westbrook *et al*. (2013) assert that these methods are rote memorization, chorus answers (e.g.'call–and–response') and whole–class lectures. The rote memorization, chorus answers and whole–class lectures are parts of behavioural learning theory. It can be clearly seen that learning how to memorize things or to 'rote–drill' in whole–class lectures is students' or learners' responses stimuli that is reinforced (Mujis and Reynolds, 2011). Additionally, Vallin and Åkesson (2012, p.9) comment that rote memorization or rote learning is "a traditional method which the monks used a long way back in Thailand's history". Following Mujis and Reynolds (2011), chorus answers are a natural reflex response to a stimulus or classic conditioning which is one of the behaviourist conditioning types (see table 2.18 below for behaviourist pedagogy). This approach is commented upon, particularly when students accomplish merely 'lower–order' tasks and have concerns about teachers' responses. On the other hand, O'Sullivan (2006) gives an international perspective on effective teaching in schools. He states that asking students to describe or elaborate their main ideas can be conducted in large classes as well as receiving lectures. Besides, learner–centred pedagogy is related to many terms such as active, participatory, student–

centred and constructivist (Vavrus *et al*., 2011). This approach places emphasis on learning theories especially in relation to learners who play an active role in the learning process (UNESCO, 2014). In other words, students utilise their previous knowledge as well as new experiences in order to establish or create new knowledge. Westbrook *et al.* (2013) comment that the learner–centred approach can be challenging for teachers as it is a shift from teacher–centred pedagogy to learner–centred pedagogy. According to O'Sullivan (2004), effective teaching will occur when teachers consider or think of local contexts while paying attention to the number of students in the classroom, teaching and learning material availability and the physical environment. Additionally, Westbrook *et al.* (2013) indicates that pedagogical effectiveness also depends on the appropriate use of the approach within school and national contexts. To elaborate, some learner–centred strategies or techniques that are perceived to be effective in classrooms with a small number of students might be difficult to achieve in large or under–resourced school classrooms especially in developing countries such as Thailand. Furthermore, pedagogic approaches "are informed by theories of learning, such as behaviourism and social constructivism" (Westbrook *et al.*, 2013, p.7). In accordance with pedagogic approaches, behaviourist pedagogy intends to boost and change observable behaviour (Standridge, 2002). He states that learning is perceived as a behaviour which demonstrates acquisition of skills or knowledge. Following Ebert and Culyer (2011) Skinner's theory is also known as operant conditioning. Tuckman (2009) asserts that operant conditioning is the use of outcomes or consequences to change the incident and form of behaviours. According to Botty and Shahrill (2014), when students behave well in a classroom, a teacher will reward them, for example, by giving sweets, stars or by giving praise. Hence, the presentation of a positive reward or stimulus is known as 'Positive Reinforcement'. Meanwhile, 'Negative Reinforcement' is applied during the time a teacher tries to take away something that the students do not like such as decreasing the number of exercises or calling out a particular student's name to answer a question when there are no volunteers in the classroom. Additionally, Skinner believed that students will learn the behaviours that are implemented by some reinforcements. Moreover, Standridge suggests

‘Skinnerian’ twelve behaviour rules taken from behaviourist theory that can be adapted into practical classrooms. These twelve rules are seen in the following table;

Table 2.18 ： A demonstration of Skinnerian behaviour rules in the UK.

Twelve Skinnerian Behaviour Rules
(1) positive reinforcement or reward, that is, giving praise to students.
(2) negative reinforcement
(3) positive punishment
Twelve Skinnerian Behaviour Rules
(4) negative punishment
(5) extinction (non–enforcement)
(6) modelling
(7) cueing which is referred to the use of nonverbal or verbal cue
(8) contracts or it is agreements between teachers and students about new behaviour styles or patterns
(9) consequences
(10) reconditioning by extinction
(11) shaping or a gradual process of changing response quality
(12) behaviour modification

According to Khamkhien (2010), Thai EFL teachers and lecturers traditionally use the audiolingual and grammar–translation methods in their classrooms which are considered behaviourist learning theory. Watcharapunyawong (2018) comments that Skinnerian behaviour rules are conceived as an alternative approach for Thai teachers and university lecturers. He suggests that positive reinforcement takes place during the time teachers or lecturers by giving praises

or prizes for those students who study well. Hence, this positive reinforcement stimulates students to get engaged more in classroom exercises and work harder so that they can receive rewards. In contrast, negative reinforcement is applied to some students who are not behaving appropriately in classroom by withdrawing praises or rewards. As suggested by Watcharapunyawong (2018) that Skinnerian behaviour rules are being applied in Thai classrooms as an alternative teaching approach, it can be summarised that other Skinnerian behaviour rules apart from positive and negative reinforcement are also being used in classrooms of English teachers or lecturers of Thai EFL classrooms (see table 2.19 of Skinnerian behaviour rules applied in Thai classrooms).

Table 2.19 : A demonstration of Skinnerian behaviour rules applied in Thai EFL classrooms.

Additional behaviour rules applied in Thai contexts
(1) rote memorisation/ rote–drill
(2) chorus answers
(3) audio–lingual
(4) grammar–translation

In terms of constructivist pedagogy, learners or students are perceived as 'unique individuals' (Lam, 2011). Lam further explains that the unique characteristic of learners is a crucial part in the process of learning. According to Pritchard (2014), learning takes place during the time new information or data has been constructed and added into the present construction of an individual's knowledge (see more details in chapter 2 section 2.8.1 social constructivist theory). Piaget also believes that children are able to actively construct their own knowledge (Wood *et al.*, 2001). Lam also suggests that Western teachers'/lecturers' role in constructivist pedagogy based on constructivist theory is to inquire, give guidelines, challenge students, establish atmosphere for students so that they can come up with their own

answers or conclusions whilst engaging in conversations. Social constructivist theory describes learning as social process likewise socio–cultural theory (Mishra, 2014). Following Brophy (2002) as cited in Mishra (2014), learning is seen as exchanges or negotiations of shared meanings and understanding between two parties. Additionally, Vygotsky's (1978) notion of learning is an activity or exercise in social interaction as data or information is obtained from another interlocutor (Ebert and Culyer, 2001). Furthermore, the social cultural approach has principles which place emphasis on dialogue or social interactions that are significant to learning, abilities of learners to construct knowledge, use practical tools in exercises or activities, and learners' abilities to reflect on their thoughts and past experiences.

2.9.3 Pedagogic strategies

2.9.3.1 Pedagogic strategies in the UK and Thailand

Following Westbrook *et al.* (2013), teachers' strategies indicate their management and control towards teaching and learning. Besides, teachers' strategies are seen as concrete expressions in their approach, for example requesting their students to feel secure, or engaging their participation or nurturing a lively teacher character or being seen as a well–informed and well–supported figure. According to constructivist pedagogy, scaffolding is a well–known technique that the teacher exemplifies learning task or strategy and gradually transfers it to students as their responsibility. Vygotsky (1987) refers to scaffolding in the Zone of Proximal Development or ZPD. He justifies that scaffolding occurs during the time suitable or appropriate advice is provided in order to support or boost students in completing a task. Bruner (1978) defines scaffolding as steps or processes used to decrease the degrees of independence in achieving some tasks so that the learner can concentrate or focus on the difficult skill he/she is in the acquiring process. McLeod (2008) asserts that Vygotsky and Bruner put an emphasis on the social nature of learning. That is, other people are able to assist a learner in skill improvement using the scaffolding process. Vygotsky suggests that an improvement of a learner within a ZPD is concerned with dialogue, mediated exercise or activity and social interaction amongst teachers and their learners

(Vygotsky, 1978, 1986; Vygotsky & Luria, 1994). Wertsch (2007) suggests that throughout Vygotsky's writing, mediation is a central theme. In other words, human makes use of tools particularly 'signs' or 'psychological tools' to implicitly or explicitly convey meanings to his or her interlocutors. Thus, a comprehension of the higher mental process, definition and its occurrence are based on the meaning or notion of mediation. Moreover, Vygotsky (1978) differentiates between signs and mediating functions of tools. Signs are internally oriented, whereas tools are externally oriented and act as human influence conductor upon the object of activity. Sociocultural theorists such as John–Steiner & Mahn (1996); Moll (1990); Wertsch (1985a), (1985b) as well as activity theorists, Cole (1996); Engeström (2001) uses the term 'cultural tool' in order to entail psychological tools (e.g. language) and physical tools (e.g. computer, pen). Additionally, Wertsch (2002) claims that 'mind' and 'action' are based and shaped by 'mediational means' and 'cultural tools' that groups and individuals utilise. Hence, some examples of widely utilised scaffolding strategies practised in Western countries, for example in the UK, are (1) questioning, (2) role playing and demonstration, (3) hints and examples, (4) instruction, (5) material adaption, and (6) self–assessment and peer assessment (Lam, 2011). Furthermore, the pedagogic strategies based on a sociocultural approach emphasise pair work or group work by teachers with an aim to create more interactions amongst teachers, students and peers through conversations or discourses so that mediated tools are being used by students as a way to boost their confidence to speak up.

As stated by Samana (2013), the concept of scaffolding amongst teachers and students has been welcomed in Thailand. To demonstrate, scaffolding was emphasised as part of interactional strategies in the research work of Khamwan (2007) in which this study investigated impacts of interactional strategy training on interaction of teachers and students. Nomnian (2002) and Chattrakul (2009) conducted a research on scaffolding. Additionally, Charttrakul (2009) suggested that "scaffolding is very crucial for EFL learners, especially in Thai classroom contexts or situations where students hardly use L2 or English in their real life" (p.14). Following Westbrook *et al.* (2013), certain effective strategies can be broadly applied, for example, pedagogical content knowledge, the utilisation of small group,

pair or whole–class work which are featured within the curricular reforms of Asian countries such as Thailand. Moreover, Westbrook *et al.* (2013) suggest that significant combinations of learning and teaching materials in addition to textbooks, chances for students to reply, respond and expand to questions, the usage of languages and local terms, a variety of lesson exercises or activities, beliefs in capacity to learn and positive attitudes towards students are included as part of effective techniques or strategies applied in developing countries such as Thailand. According to Hinkel (2006) as cited in Khamkhien (2010), teaching strategies which are adopted and adapted by Thai teachers and lecturers also include the use of request, refusals, compliments, and clarification questions.

Hence, it can be summarised that scaffolding is perceived as a pedagogic technique or strategy which is applied in British and Thai classrooms. As a learner–centred approach is considered the principal pedagogy of teaching and learning of British education, not only widely scaffolding strategies such as questioning, role–playing or demonstration, hints and examples, instructions, material adaption, self–assessment and peer assessment are utilised, but pair work and group work are emphasised and practised. Compared to Thai scaffolding techniques or strategies utilisation of request, refusals, compliments and clarification questions are additional to common scaffolding strategies prescribed in Western countries especially the UK.

2.9.4 Teaching practices

2.9.4.1 Teaching practices in the UK and Thailand

According to Alexander (2001) as cited in Westbrook *et al.* (2013), teaching practices are composed of specific discourse and actions that occur in a classroom lesson and physically establish the approach and strategy. Furthermore, Alexander (2001) suggests that teaching practices are comprised of various elements. To start with, teachers' talk or discourse, for example, questioning, explication, instruction, illustration, figure of speech, replying or responding, and discourse

management is considered its first element. Visual representation such as the use of pictures, a whiteboard or chalkboard, written instructions and writing, charts or diagrams, textbooks, learning aids such as objects, drama, experiments to construct or understand new knowledge being indicated or presented to the students or learners are included in the second element of teaching practice. Furthermore, the act of providing or setting tasks for students to get engaged with new contents in order to improve learning skills such as writing, reading, drawing, rehearsing, practising, problem solving, mapping and experimentation are parts of teaching practice elements. A variety of social interactions such as pair, group, whole–class or individually works in which language is considered a principle between teachers and learners and vice versa are included. Besides, teachers' assessment or monitoring, giving feedback, remediation, intervention, and summative and formative assessment of the learners or students' assessments are considered elements of teaching practice.

Following Jaitiang (2010), teaching practices in Thailand are defined as teaching skills in order to improve teachers/lecturers teaching achievements. The first element of teaching practices are teachers/lecturers discourse/talk, speaking tones, pace including their abilities to make teaching topics interesting, clear and understandable. Secondly, teachers/lecturers' abilities to question, elicit answers from students while getting them to observe, express opinions, give reasons when responding to questions apart from using only memorization. Thirdly, the use of appropriate teaching materials, such as real objects, models, pictures, graphs, maps and other visual aids are proposed. Apart from that, teaching materials or the act of managing classroom activities and role–play are included. The application of a chalkboard or whiteboard to write or draw pictures as well as getting students to take part in using it are mentioned as parts of teaching practice. Additionally, teachers/lecturers' abilities to explain and tell stories, for example, using nonverbal communication or body language, tone of voices to demonstrate a story are accounted for being parts of teaching practices. Moreover, teachers/lecturers' abilities to arose students' interest by changing teaching methods or reorganizing classroom activities, for example, using songs, games, story–telling which can attract attention from students are considered.

Having compared teaching practices between the United Kingdom and Thailand, it can be viewed that teaching practices of the two countries are alike in terms of teachers or lecturers' discourses, the use of teaching materials or aids, the application of nonverbal communication or body language, classroom management or various social interactions management. However, assessments or feedback for students are considered vital in British education as part of teaching practices rather than English teaching practices in Thai contexts.

To sum up, pedagogy, pedagogic approaches, pedagogic strategies and teaching practices are significant elements in teaching and learning processes particularly in communication and interactions between teachers and students in the United Kingdom and Thailand. These elements cannot be separated from one another. Besides, it can be obviously seen that learning theories such as behaviourist, constructivist, social constructivist and sociocultural theory are embedded within pedagogy, pedagogic approaches and pedagogic strategies. To fully understand CCC(s) that identify my empirical works, lecturers and students need to be aware of pedagogy, pedagogic approaches, pedagogic strategies and teaching practices especially pedagogic strategies which are the basis of CCC(s) emerging in Thai EFL classrooms (see figure 2.6 for appropriate pedagogic strategies for Thai students, Thai lecturers and native English lecturers in EFL classrooms).

Figure 2.5 ： A demonstration of appropriate communication strategies (CSs) for Thai students, Thai lecturers and native English lecturers in EFL classrooms according to Tarone's (1983) CS taxonomies.

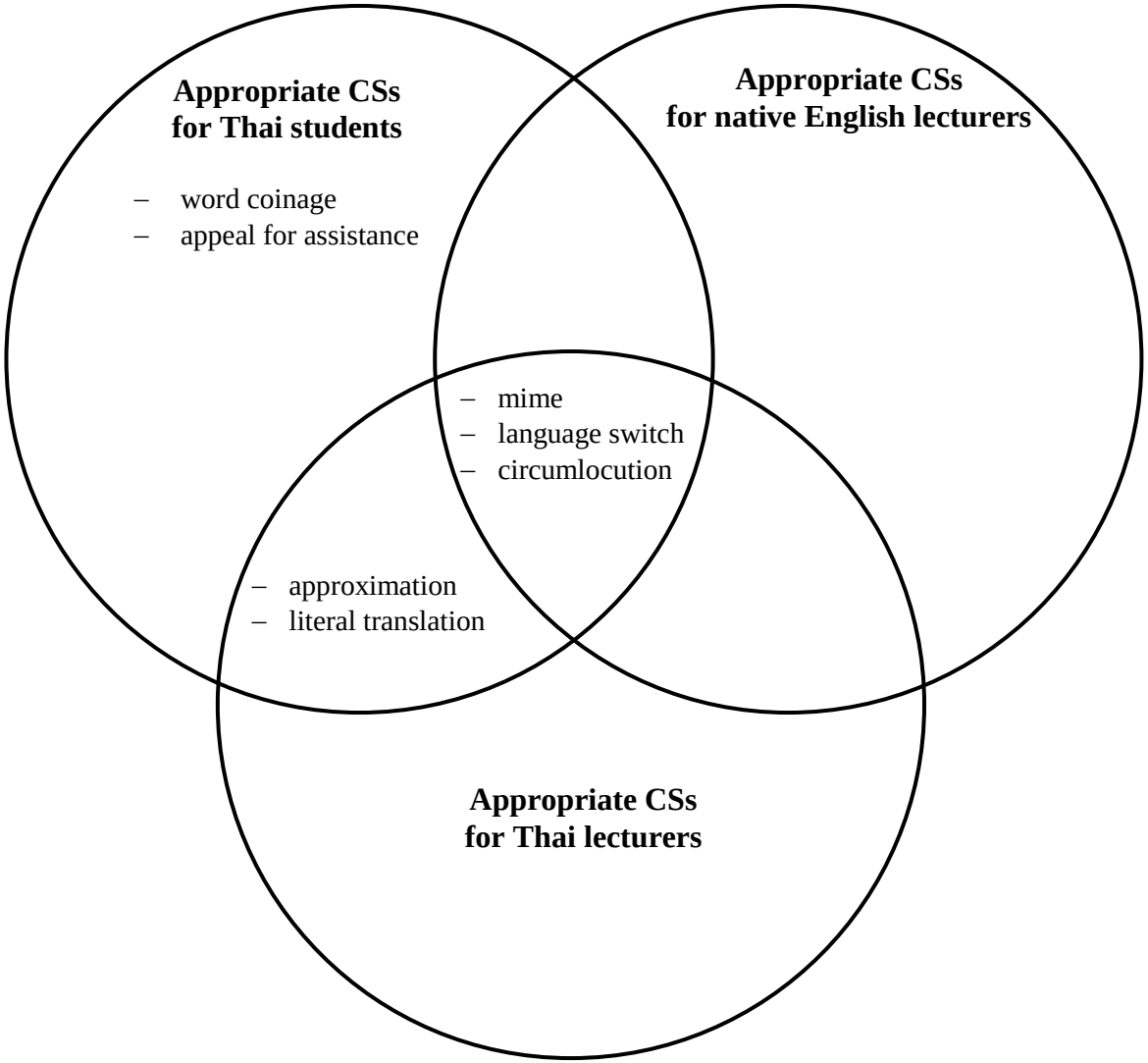


Figure 2.6 : A demonstration of appropriate pedagogic strategies for native English lecturers and Thai lecturers in EFL classrooms

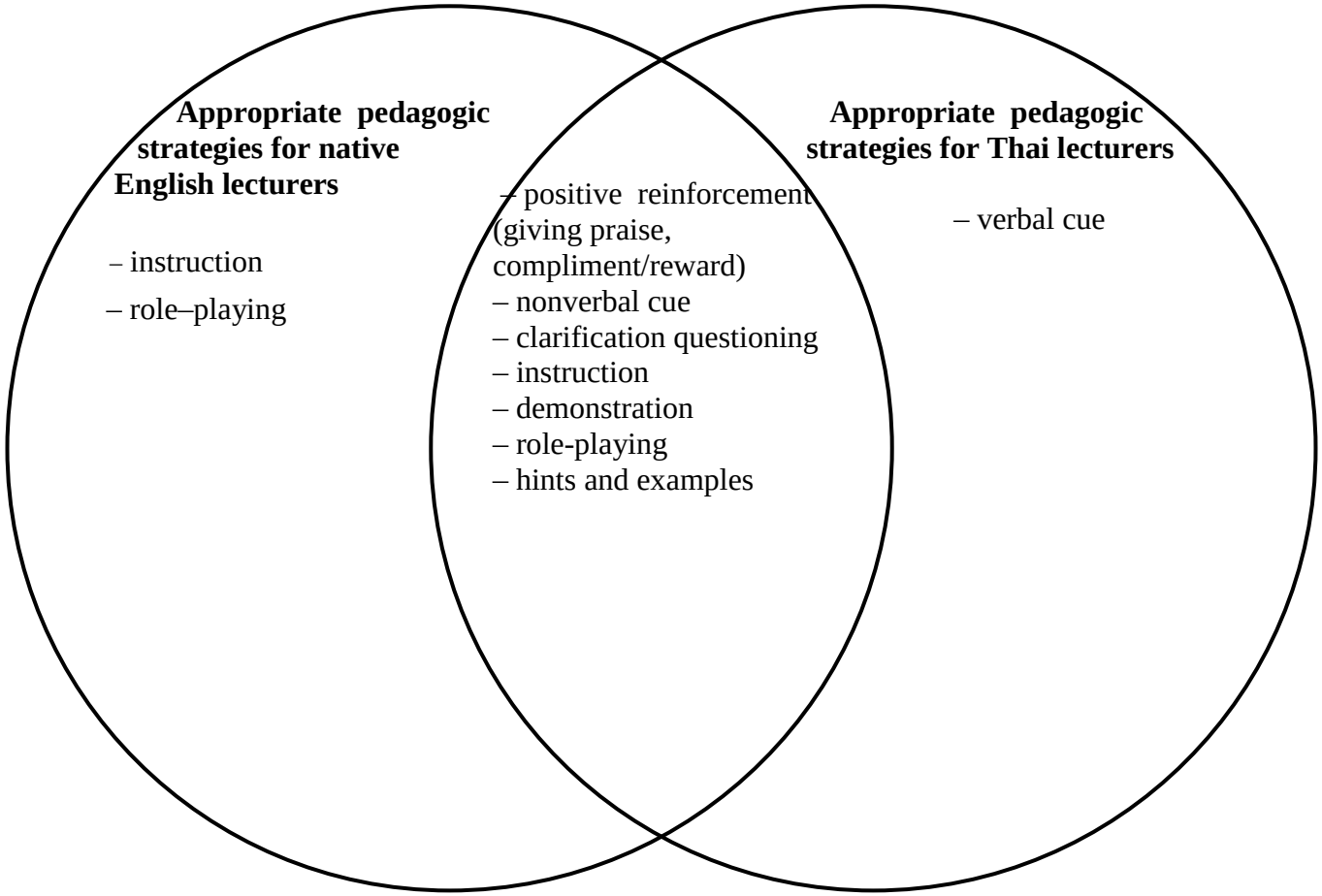
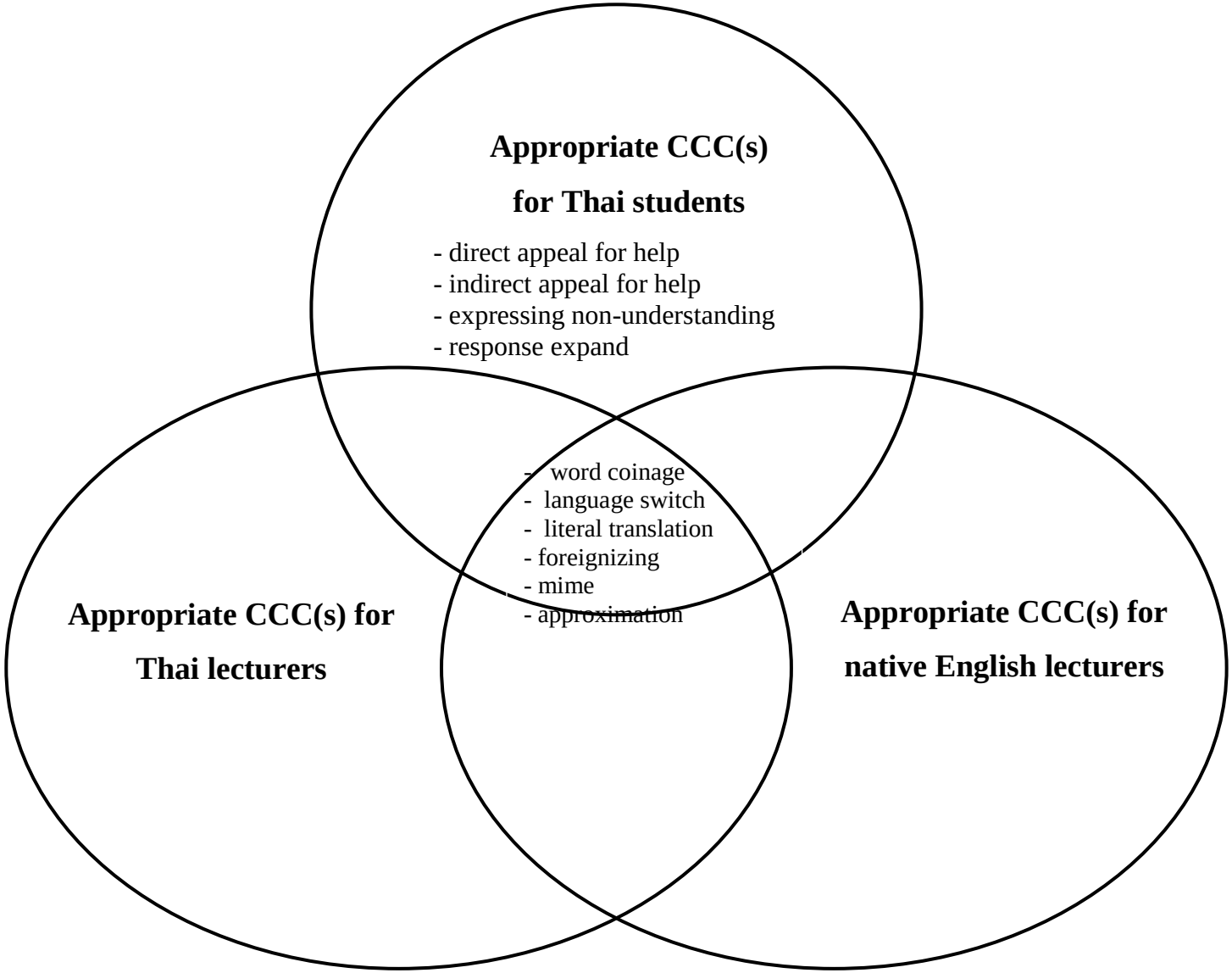


Figure 2.7 : A demonstration of appropriate cross-cultural communication strategies (CCCs) for Thai students, Thai lecturers and native English lecturers in EFL classrooms



2.10 Summary of Chapter two

This literature review presents the historical overview and trends in communication strategies, particularly in the area of second language or foreign language learning as well as confirming the importance of cross–cultural communication research. Since the introduction of CS's concept by Selinker in 1972, communication strategies have been emphasised and developed for several decades (Kongsom, 2009). Moreover, the history of Thai educational system and its educational reforms also point to the fact that English language is significant in Thai education according to high demands of English speaking graduates working in different companies and sectors in the country.

Regarding the issues of Teaching English as a foreign language and a lack of English speaking proficiency of Thai students which are considered existing problems, Thai students' low English proficiency is considered the main theme occurred within this perspective. As this problem was proposed by various scholars: Snae and Brueckner (2007); Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009); Kirckpatrick (2012), it is necessary to lessen the problem by investigating whether or not CSs and CCCs can assist teacher and student to achieve effective communication. Additionally, the previous researches, Tarone (1983); Dörnyei and Scott (1997); Kongsom (2009); Yaman *et al.* (2013) support the application and teaching of CSs and CCCs in order to improve learners' speaking competence. Therefore, the use of CSs and CCCs by native English lecturers, Thai lecturers and Thai students is counted as one of the important themes occurred after the literature review. Moreover, it is undeniable that pedagogy, pedagogic approaches and pedagogic strategies are the basis of CSs and CCCs. The application of pedagogic strategies by native English lecturers and Thai lecturers is also included as parts of the main themes after the literature review.

Having reviewed cultural dimensions which are relevant to Thai student behaviours expressed whilst learning in the EFL classrooms, the occurrence of silence was another significant theme which pinpointed cultural facts taking place

in teaching-learning contexts (Knutson, Hwang, Vivatananukul (1995); Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam and Jablin (1999); Knutson (2004); Apaibanditkul (2006) and Hofstede (2010)).

Due to the above reasons, three research questions were produced to examine those stated issues. The three research questions are seen as follows;

> RQ1. What cross–cultural communication strategies are applied in the Thai EFL classroom?
>
> RQ2: Why native English lecturers and Thai students do use cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom?
>
> RQ3: What factors contribute to effective communication between native English lecturers and Thai students in the Thai EFL classroom?

The next chapter presents and discusses research methodology and data collection employed for this study.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter has aimed to address the methodology, methods, and data collection carried out in this research. It also describes the significant rationales for the selection of the research method design. Following the justifications and rationales for research method design, pilot study data and main study data were also discussed. The chapter comprises of five main parts. The first section, section 3.1 presents the paradigm of this study, the justification of this research as a case study, the research instruments which are qualitative mixed–methods, and the choice of thematic analysis. In section 3.2, research setting and participants are presented. Section 3.3 presents pilot study data collection procedures which are teacher interviews, student interviews, and video recordings of classroom teachings. Section 3.4 discusses main study data collection procedures which are teacher interviews, student interviews, and observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings. Section 3.5 discusses about rigour, reliability, validity and bias while conducting this study.

As outlined in the Introduction this research focuses on the application of cross–cultural communication strategies and communication strategies between Thai lecturers, native English lecturers and Thai students in order to produce a set of effective CCCs and/ or CSs framework or model which teachers and students can apply in their practices. Furthermore, previous researches suggest that the use of CSs develop learner's speaking proficiency. The selection of research design was built upon the philosophical perspectives or positions underpinning its methodology which is comprised of: philosophy, ontology, epistemology, and axiology. These philosophical positions underpinning the methodology for this study have a significant influence on the choice of research approaches as well as the research methods leading to a decision made for data collection. The justification of this research design and the methods used are explained based on a consistent comprehension of the interpretivist paradigm, case study approach and

qualitative mixed methods. The design of the research instruments and their arrangement in pilot and main study are presented respectively.

Henceforth, a clear list of topic areas for teacher interviews in relation to the literature review is identified: cross-cultural communication strategies, communication strategies and other strategies applied in the Thai EFL classrooms. Besides, the occurrence of miscommunication, communication difficulties, and the application of nonverbal communication by Thai students are other questions concerned with communication. Many questions under effective CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogic strategies used by native English lecturers and Thai lecturers were selected due to its relevance. In the teacher interview schedule, questions related to culture and cultural dimensions were manifested: attitudes toward Thai culture, cultural differences, and cultural issues as they demonstrated cultural dimensions or cultural values.

In addition, a clear list of topic areas for student interviews comprised specific questions regarding CCC(s) and CS(s) as they were the main emphasis of this study. Under the topic of CCC(s) and CS(s), various questions concerned meanings of these terms, nonverbal communication application, the occurrence of misunderstanding, the awareness of using CCC(s), CS(s) and communication difficulties were chosen and manifested. In the area of cultural values or dimensions (power distance, collectivist culture as reviewed in the literature chapter), questions concerned subject or English course taken, student behaviours, classroom atmosphere were presented.

The sections below justify the ontological, epistemological and axiological positions this research has adopted. As mentioned before, the ontological, epistemological and axiological positions have directed the choice of research approaches, tools leading to the collection of data, and how research questions were answered. To recall, this study addresses these following research questions:

> RQ1. What cross–cultural communication strategies are applied in the Thai EFL classroom?

RQ2. Why native English lecturers and Thai students do use cross–cultural strategies in the Thai EFL classroom?

RQ3. What factors contribute to effective communication between native English lecturers and Thai students in the Thai EFL classroom?

3.1 Research perspectives and design

3.1.1 Ontology, epistemology and axiological positions

According to Mack (2011, p.5), ontology can simply be defined as "…one's view of reality and being", meanwhile epistemology is referred to "…the view of how one acquires knowledge" (p.5). Mack comments that if someone studies ontology, he or she also studies what people mean when they realise and say that something exists. For those who study epistemology also study what people mean when they say that they understand something. According to Blaikie (1993, p.6) as cited in King and Horrocks (2010), ontology is defined as "…the science or study of being". Blaikie also claims that ontology means "the claims or assumptions that a particular approach or social enquiry makes about the nature of social reality" (1993, p.6). Moreover, Crotty's (2012) definition of ontology which is 'the study of being' should be highly considered. That is; the emphasis of this theory is on existence.

3.1.1.1 Ontology

Blaikie's perspective gives us obvious implication of the significance in having a philosophical view for our research methodology. The lack of view on social reality might obstruct people from wondering what might be significant knowledge for the research procedures. There are two opposing ontological approaches about the theory of existence (King and Horrocks, 2010). The first approach talks about biological inheritance: that is, the notion of 'being' in this world is located within the individuals. The second approach talks about practices

of the society and its people–people are the actors of the society. King and Horrocks argue that ontological positions are frequently depicted as 'relativist' or 'realist'. The realist ontology simply describes the world view to the fact that the reality is 'out there' and exists independently from our world. Besides, the world comprises of various objects and compositions which will identify relationships in terms of cause and effect. Biology, chemistry, and physics; the natural sciences, are positioned within the realist ontology. Quantitative experimental methods in social studies and researches are based on the belief that 'real' elements of people's existence can be exposed by applying suitable methods and instruments for analysis and data collections. However, relativist ontology proposes that the world and its reality are far more diverse and unstructured.

According to Crotty, the ontological position of the researcher can emerge from considering the research questions of the project. However, prior to discussing the methodology related to the research questions, the researcher would like to discuss about how the world view of 'the study of being' for the purpose of this research arose. The research questions of this study emerged and were derived from researcher's views of teaching and learning English in Thai EFL classrooms, Thai educational systems of teaching and learning as well as from her own experiences whilst teaching English in a university in Thailand. Having taught in a Thai university for almost two years, the researcher had noticed some features or characteristics of Thai students when learning English. For example, most Thai students remained quiet or silent in the classroom; a number of students were not being proactive and did not want to take part in English lessons. Many Thai learners were afraid of providing answers, feedback, responses and of speaking English to their lecturers in class. These characteristics found in Thai students at the university level not only contributed to the research questions but also made the researcher realise how these students learn and use English to communicate in the Thai EFL classrooms especially with their native English lecturers; were they able to speak more freely with native English lecturers or with Thai lecturers? Moreover, an issue of Thai students lacking English speaking proficiency became a question in the researcher's mind: whether or not there were some strategies assisting Thai students to cope with their English speaking problem during the

time they used English to communicate with their native English lecturers. Hence, the experiences gained as a lecturer in a Thai university had enabled the researcher to establish her ontological view in order to improve the existence of human or Thai learners in life for a betterment of English speaking competence as well as stimulating her research to find out the reasons behind Thai students' problems with speaking English. Also, having viewed various perspectives in the literature on the Thai EFL classroom, teacher–student teaching and learning perceptions, and their pedagogical approaches had helped the researcher to identify the main research questions.

3.1.1.2 Epistemology

Having stated earlier about the meanings of epistemology, King and Horrocks (2010) insert a precise definition of epistemology; that is referred to "the philosophical theory of knowledge" (p.8). The issue in this theory is an attempt to outline or formulate adequate criteria in order to assess that particular knowledge or what people have claimed of knowing it. King and Horrocks suggest that if a researcher brings the concept of knowing as the basis of describing differentiation between quantitative and qualitative research, clarification is possible of fundamental methodological problems underpinning the explanation for a particular approach. Researchers' reasons for selecting methods can be 'something people will return to later' which can generate complex ideas during the time people query about 'knowledge–based questions', some specific problems, and phenomena (King and Horrocks, 2010). As a consequence, queries, knowledge–based questions and phenomena help promote thinking or consideration related to what is likely to be a possible and reliable pathway in accordance with such knowledge. Thus, epistemology is used as a tool of setting up what is accounted for 'knowledge'. In addition, epistemology is also known for a central approach in any methodologies.

The researcher's epistemological perspectives derived from having viewed and understood Thai students' learning features, teaching and learning beliefs and practices amongst teachers and students in the Thai EFL classrooms and by

reviewing the existing knowledge such as CCC(s) and CSs taxonomies, traditional rote memorising strategy for Thai learners, child–centred approach, Thai educational history and its educational reform acts. Additionally, reviews of research theoretical frameworks which are sociocultural theory by Vygotsky and Engeström's activity theory had shed light on the researcher's philosophical world views for this study. That is, the researcher has gained more understanding of how learners or students in general acquire knowledge through social interactions with their teachers, peers, parents and the others in community regarding their cultural contexts. Meanwhile, Engeström's activity theory and the application of his triangular model were used to manifest a clear picture of cross–cultural classrooms, teaching and learning contexts of the Thai EFL within various elements and tensions under the usage of language as their significant learning tool (mediated tools). Besides, Engeström's triangle was used as a model to pinpoint characteristics of Thai EFL classrooms, effective CCC(s) and CSs applied by teachers and students, and their aims or objectives for English teaching and learning. The model also presented different themes which emerged from analyzing the main study data. At the same time, these framework theories partly helped justify choices for the research methodological design of this current study.

In general, qualitative research resonates with the critical realist and relativist approaches, while quantitative research is based upon realist ontology. Epistemology queries about what stands for knowledge within a specific ontology view that has a direct connection to the research. In other words, this indicates the influence of theory and philosophical comprehensions on what people believe and what people have known. Because of such impact, researchers are able to understand how to gather data, information as well as to make sense of their studies. To illustrate, if a researcher believes that inheritance of genetics could define man's behaviour, the researcher would not include qualitative interviews in her methodology. Also, words in such conversations would not give the appropriate data in order to investigate the transmission of human genetics into behaviours. The use of interviews with people in order to expose their experiences could provide relevant and compatible data as descriptions for ontological position regarding people's behaviour and their social interaction. Therefore

research is linked with ontological understandings and beliefs which impact on 'knowledge'. Last but not least, epistemology, ontology, methodology and methods are all linked together and cannot be seen separately.

3.1.1.3 Axiology

Apart from ontological and epistemological perspectives, it is necessary to define and justify axiological position for the current study. Axiology is the branch of philosophy which is related to "the general problem of value that is, the nature, origin, and permanence" (Tomar, 2014, p.51). Moreover, Tomar suggests that an emphasis of axiology is on 'what ought to be'. It relates to the nature of values. It also connects with the teaching of values in the form of moral and improvement of character. Axiology is also divided into two elements which are ethics and aesthetics. Ethics is considered as the branch of philosophy which is related to morals, whereas aesthetics regards the problems of art and beauty. According to Tomar (2014), values are man's guideline in making decision as to what is true, right and good though they tend to rely much on feelings rather than ideas or thoughts. Values can be ranged from distinction between right and wrong, self–respect, the significance of hard work, even a faith in God. In education, values are seen as an instrument underpinning education. Values based education give educators' goals for their professional and private lives. Thus, value based education becomes a major scope of constructing justice, social conduct, tolerance, intercultural understanding and peace. It is essential to strengthen and develop values in human beings as citizens for the country. To accomplish this purpose, teachers have to play a significant role. Tomar (2014) comments that teachers are viewed as the key for understanding and knowing a nation. That is, they are considered to be nation constructors or builders. In order to create important improvements in a society or nation, people need to look towards teachers. Tomar claims that the accomplishment of improvement of children's personality can be stimulated through a teacher's positive personality which can also affect and influence students' ability, their opinions, thoughts and engagement in classroom exercises. Furthermore, teachers should not enforce standards of behaviour or ethical codes (Tomar, 2014). In other words, the ethical codes ought to come from

social situation and student's own assessment of his or her behaviour. Tomar asserts that bringing up a child to comprehend and get along well with the others as well as get them to realise what is right or wrong can lead them to better chances in their futures.

Moreover, my axiological perspectives is derived from two main sources: the first one came from my experiences of teaching English in a Thai university and the second one emerged after having reviewed the background of this study, through studying the literature, the Thai educational system and its reform acts. My thoughts on English teaching and learning especially in the Thai EFL classroom made me wonder about the effectiveness of teachers' teaching methods and their strategies in teaching English for Thai learners: are teaching methods pedagogy which teachers used in class such as, speaking slowly and clearly, unlike a native English speaker, using language switching etc. as valuable for the betterment of student English speaking skills?

In the Thai EFL classrooms, the large number of students per class, in other words, large–sized classrooms plus different ranges of Thai student proficiencies which are substantial could impact on the way Thai students learn English. Apart from that, the 'row and column' structure of the English classroom could also affect the movement or the mobility of the students while doing exercises or activities in the classroom. After realising these issues which were likely to become factors affecting the teaching and learning of English between two parties, the researcher began to question whether or not these elements could prevent students from having effective conversation with their English lecturers– the native English lecturers and Thai lecturers. Additionally, the researcher frequently saw that Thai learners applied language switching, direct translation or literal translation and sometimes used gestures, mime, body language or non–linguistic communication trying to communicate and convey their meanings to the lecturers. Thus, these types of classroom reactions contributed to questions: how effective these strategies could be?; were the strategies related pedagogy valuable in terms of improving Thai student's English competency? Furthermore, the perceptions received from having reviewed rationales of this study, Thai

education history, the system and its educational acts made me consider whether the transformation of Thai education from traditional rote learning or memorisation into a child–centred approach is appropriate for Thai education especially for the university students or not. Also, another question which came into the researcher's mind was: were Thai students at the university level ready to embrace this approach? That is because, after the introduction of the child–centred or learner–centred approach as well as the communicative English teaching approach to Thai teaching and learning system (discussed in introduction chapter–see section 1.3, and in literature review– see section 2.4.2), it seemed that the learning and teaching of English in the university where the research was investigated had only been changed slightly and there was no change in that; most students kept silent and were passive in the ELT classroom. Therefore, in the researcher's critical evaluation, these teaching–learning factors and the surroundings issues the stimulus for this research to investigate further how to improve teacher and student cross–cultural communication through the application of communication taxonomies.

So far, my research perspective has been shaped by and is also based on epistemological, ontological and axiological positions. My ontological perspective based on my experiences of being a lecturer in a Thai university and my own world view have given insights into teaching and learning as well as into pedagogical approaches in the Thai educational system. This also led me into an enquiry of the nature and its setting–how native English lecturers, Thai lecturers, and Thai students communicate, the existing cross–cultural communication strategies or communication strategies, their social interactions and the compositions which connected to the epistemological position or the philosophical knowledge of the investigation including teaching practices, beliefs and how the individuals learn and communicate with their teachers in the classrooms underpinning by sociocultural theory and Engeström activity theory. Moreover, the axiological view of this study concerning teaching and learning, some thoughts on effectiveness or potential of CCC(s), CSs applied amongst teachers and students in the English classes and the value of pedagogical approaches have become a decision made for

the establishment of the research questions and the research methodological design.

3.1.2 Research paradigm

Interpretivist paradigm

According to Burton *et al*. (2008), there are a numerous paradigms or models of inquiry connected with education research and the two principle paradigms are the positivistic and the interpretive paradigms. Burton *et al*. suggest that positivism was the common paradigm, meanwhile interpretivism was established later. Interpretivism is also considered as 'an alternative, challenging traditional assumptions underpinning research' (Burton *et al*. 2008). These two paradigms present different opposite worldviews regarding pathways where reality is comprehended, arising from different ontologies and leading to different epistemologies or perceptions of the production of knowledge. To the observer, reality is perceived and believed to be external and objective. Stated by Mewrtens and McClaughlin (2004, p.52) as cited in Burton *et al*. (2008), "the purpose of research is to develop…confidence that a particular knowledge claim…is true or false by collecting evidence in the form of objective data of relevant phenomena". Positivistic researchers look for reasoning from detailed facts to general principles, measurable and 'hard' quantitative data by the use of a scientific method or approach. On the contrary, interpretive researchers have aimed to expose concepts and share various meanings in order to develop profound understandings of phenomena taking place in the social world with the aid of a predominant qualitative data collection.

With these two paradigms, more variation is seen between experimental and naturalistic approaches. The former takes place within protocols and various conditions such as controlled groups and clinical laboratory tests etc. On the other hand, the latter is conducted in a natural setting. There is, however, a caution when looking at these two paradigms. Even though researchers have realized that

certain research methods and approaches are likely to embody either the interpretive or positivistic paradigm, the pathway that methods are applied can be overlapped within the specific paradigms. To illustrate, a mixed method approach is frequently adopted, utilizing quantitative and qualitative data. Meanwhile, interpretive researchers question whether or not a positivistic or scientific approach can sufficiently expose and describe human behaviour. The positivistic or the scientific investigator will collect only the data which is used to generalise the value of his or her research. The statistics and probability of the research event will be used to accumulate and seek a correct or precise arithmetical value. As a result, Burton *et al*. (2008) argue that each approach is applied differently due to the nature of the research's enquiry as well as the kind of data that the particular research needs. Both approaches also possess their own strengths and weaknesses.

In order to differentiate between the aim for adopting a qualitative research or quantitative methodology, the metaphor stated by Kvale (1996, p.4) can be a useful starting point of how qualitative research is perceived:

> Traveller on a journey that leads to a tale to be told upon returning home.The (researcher)–traveller wanders through the landscape and enters into conversations with people encountered. The traveller explores the many domains of the country, as unknown territory and with maps, roaming freely around the territory.

On the other hand, Kvale (1996, p.3) also compares quantitative research to the mining process as follows:

> Knowledge is understood as buried metal and the researcher is a miner who unearths the valuable metal…the knowledge is waiting in the subject's interior to be uncovered, uncontaminated by the miner.

To distinguish between positivistic and interpretive frameworks, it is vital as a researcher to comprehend the methodological preferences and the philosophical

principles underpinning each of these two paradigms. The table below broadly demonstrates differences between qualitative and quantitative paradigms (see table 3.1). Those statements on the qualitative column which are bold reflect the qualitative perspectives of this research and its design emanating from the researcher's ontological, epistemological and axiological position. It is beneficial for all researchers to be aware of the approach they are employing, and the underlying positions. To demonstrate, if a lecturer employs a positive behaviour management approach in order to take a control of his or her classroom, this awareness will direct the lecturer to connect with particular research instruments and techniques, reflecting a particular axiology and ontology. This awareness will also allow the teacher to consider research paradigms according to what they aim to accomplish, also to think thoroughly on data and evidence gathering, its techniques that will be the most suitable and efficient for his or her study.

The aim of this study is to produce an initial set or framework of effective CCC(s) or CSs from the teachers and students in the Thai EFL classroom. Other EFL lecturers and learners who encounter similar teaching-learning contexts will be able to choose and apply this set of framework. Moreover, this study has aimed to find out teachers and students' perceptions and attitudes, pedagogical practices, their teaching, learning beliefs, and the cultural issues occurring between native English lecturers and Thai students. Therefore, this study has adopted the interpretivist paradigm to generate the methodology for its research design.

Table 3.1 : Some broad differences between qualitative and quantitative paradigms

Quantitative	**Qualitative**
Numbers used as data	**Spoken and written language (words) used as data**
Look for identifying relationship between factors/variables in order to justify and predict the purpose of generalized results to a bigger population	**Seeks comprehension to interpret more meanings locally**; **acknowledges data as gathered in contexts**; **sometimes generates knowledge provided for more general comprehension**
Produces 'shallow' but broad data–uncomplicated information/detailed received from participants, however, many participants get involved in order to produce the essential statistical power.	**Produces** 'narrow' but **rich data**, **thick descriptions–complex and detailed descriptions from each research participants; not many get involved**
Look for general agreement (consensus)/ general forms, norms; frequently aims to decrease differences of answers to an average answer.	**Tends to find forms/ patterns, but provides and exposes divergences and differences of data**
Tends to test theory , and deductive	**Tends to generate theory, and inductive (working up from data)**
Objectivity–equality and value separation	**Subjectivity, reflexivity–values personal participation** and partiality
Method is likely to be fixed–difficult to change focus once data collection has started	**Method is less fixed–can provide a change/shift in focus in the same research**
Can be achieved quickly	**Tends to take longer duration to achieve due to its interpretative and its unfixed formula**

Adapted from Tolich and Davidson (2003) as cited in Braun and Clarke (2013, p.4)

3.1.3 Approach to this research (Case Study)

According to Denscombe (2010), case studies emphasise on one (or just a few) events of a specific phenomenon with a viewpoint to give an in–depth description

of situations, experiences, processes, or relationships taking place in that specific event. The application of case studies is popular in social research, especially for the small scale research. Thus, if researchers choose a case study approach, they believe in a set of preferences and ideas which can combine to provide this approach's unique features. Denscombe (2010) adds that the case study approach "… is quite the opposite of any mass study" (p.53). The reason why efforts have been put into one case compared to many other cases, is that there are likely to be profound understanding or insights which can be perceived over and above investigating the individual case. The individual case can provide thorough descriptions and implications. The purpose of the case study approach is to clarify or illuminate general instances by viewing the specific instances (Denscombe, 2010). The case study approach is seen as providing unique and valuable understandings; that is, to study circumstances or things in more detail that a survey cannot commonly presents.

According to Yin (2009, p.18), a case study approach is referred to as:

> … an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real–life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

Farquhar (2009) comments that by applying a case study approach, a researcher will gain insight or unique comprehension into whatever research has been chosen. Normally, case study research gives insights into contexts in a phenomenon or in a contemporary phenomenon. In other words, to demonstrate: in educational research, collecting data as research evidence regarding a particular phenomenon where it takes place can be carried out in a country, a school or even in a university. Therefore, the rationale behind the study is in accordance with the focused interest of a researcher. Hence, his or her interest can also be discussed or argued further with others who have the same interests. This concept is in line with Stake's (1995, p.1) view of case study approach, that is:

> We enter the scene with a sincere interest in learning how [actors] function in ordinary pursuits and milieus and with a willingness to put aside many presumptions while we learn.

Case study research is appropriate for providing answers that begin with why, how and who. The strength of the case study approach is that it is suitable for an investigation of a situation or an event which takes place in the contemporary context as mentioned above. Also, case study research is regarded as a study or an investigation of single or multiple units. That is, familiar research methods for the collection of data can be, for example, surveys or interviews. Case studies are also called 'empirical investigations' in a sense that they are on a basis of experience and knowledge while getting involved practically with data collection and analysis. By limiting a study scope to a small number of units, the researcher can also carry out in–depth investigations into his or her topic of interest and phenomenon. In survey research, large samples are required, in contrast the case study research only uses a small number of cases. According to Yin's (2009) central components of a case study design and their functions, case studies are preferred to be applied in situations as follows:

(1) When, 'how' or 'why' questions are being asked.

(2) When the researcher has little control over events.

(3) When the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon.

Apart from Yin's (2009) criteria to consider using the case study approach, Denscombe (2011 p. 62) also indicates that advantages of the case study approach are to "…encourage the use of multiple methods in order to capture the complex reality under scrutiny". These become reasons why case study was chosen to be the approach of this study along with seeking a better understanding or insight that allows the researcher to perceive what is happening in the Thai EFL classroom–the contemporary phenomenon. As stated in Yin's (2009) central components of a case study design and their functions that case study is preferred

to be applied when ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions are being asked; this research used the case study approach in order to also find out ‘why native English lecturers and Thai students use cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom?’.

3.1.4 Qualitative mixed methods

A rationale has been presented for this study adopting an interpretivist paradigm and case study for its approach. Resulting from this rationale was the research’s paradigm and the approach, the researcher’s choice of qualitative mixed methods to explore and find out the answers to the research questions. Brannen (2005), suggests that for the purpose of addressing research question(s), researchers should design a strategy. Brannen (2005, p.4) also states that:

> Mixed methods research means adopting a research strategy employing more than one type of research method. The methods may be a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods, a mix of quantitative methods or a mix of qualitative methods.

Moreover, Brannen (2005) comments that when researchers adopt a mixed method strategy, its research strategy might be established or included in a different research strategy, for example, the choice of a case study approach. In the case study approach, several methods could be used. My study adopted the case study approach so that various qualitative mixed methods could be employed to look through differing lens of the taxonomies of communication strategies and how Thai EFL classrooms were portrayed through the application of Engeström’s activity theory.

Many scholars and researchers have defined qualitative research differently. Braun and Clarke (2013) define or compare qualitative methods to “…the process of sculpting or patchwork quilting” (p.36). To illustrate, a quilt–maker begins his or her work, or position, by having material outlines or shapes which equate to

having ‘data’ outlined; some of the materials look similar while the other can be different. After that the quilt–maker prepares these materials into a specific pattern in order to describe different stories; when the patterns are quilted the data is analysed. This kind of metaphor also provides the suggestion that ‘anything goes’ in qualitative research (Braun and Clarke, 2013). Besides, the quilt–maker can produce a variety of patterns on the quilt using the acquired fabric or material (data). The final product would symbolise what the quilt–maker or the research initiated with raw data. Moreover, some quilt patterns can be well–organised, coherent and look great; meanwhile others can be chaotic, look bad or be random because of the limitation of raw materials–equivalent to the analysis of qualitative data. Furthermore, Mason suggests:

> …a qualitatively driven approach to mixing methods offers enormous potential for generating new ways of understanding the complexities and contexts of social experience, and for enhancing our capacities for social explanation and generalization. Such an approach can draw on and extend some of the best principles of qualitative enquiry.

Mason also comments that using a qualitative driven approach can be beneficial in many ways. For example, qualitative research assists researchers to find out and improve constructivist epistemologies and to join with difficult methodological problems particularly around explanation and interpretation of questions. Moreover, qualitative researchers have to also be aware and realise the limitations of a pure qualitative paradigm.

Furthermore, Mason (2006, p.3–12) has proposed six strategies of mixing methods for qualitative research and linking data in social science research as a guide to some significant problems. She claims that these strategies support the connecting of various features of data and mixing of methods so that researchers can employ more than one method in order to produce and analyse data. Researchers also need to possess a clear logic and aim for their approach as well as knowing what they want to accomplish for their study as linking of data requires analytic skill. According to Gorard and Taylor (2004), combined–method work is not new as it appeared in 1959 in the work of Campbell and Fiske.

Thus, the six strategies for mixing methods in a qualitative research suggested by Mason (2006, p. 3–12) are comprised of: (1) mixing methods for a close–up illustration of a bigger picture or for background, (2) mixing methods to ask and answer differently conceived or separate questions, (3) mixing methods to ask questions about connecting parts, segments or layers of a social whole, (4) mixing methods to achieve accurate measurement through triangulation, (5) mixing methods to ask distinctive but intersecting questions, and (6) mixing methods opportunistically. My study has also adopted one of these strategies as part of the research method design. Prior to justifying the chosen strategy for my qualitative mixed–methods design, it is necessary to discuss the different features of each mixing methods strategy.

To begin with, the first strategy which is 'mixing methods for a close–up illustration of a bigger picture or for background' is claimed to be the most generally applied logic in mixing methods. This type of strategy can provide some depth to the research analysis. Mason suggests that this is frequently carried out by researchers who have preliminary backgrounds in either a qualitative or a quantitative orientation. Also, they need to perceive a sense that there are incomplete or imperfect details of their research methods and data. For qualitative researchers who put an emphasis on social procedures in rich data, a feature of local or national demographic data–some background quantitative data can assist in producing a bigger picture of observations. On the other hand, for quantitative researchers, the 'big picture' based on statistical or representative figures of analysis and its sampling can also lead to the choice of a qualitative approach such as an in–depth case study to manifest a close–up perspective. The logic of this type of research is 'rhetorical'. That is, from the beginning of the study, the researcher employs a different figure or form of data to add details to his or her analysis. However, these additional details from the analysis are considered unnecessary for the research argument. The additional details of data become only the explanatory logic and a supplement itself is either quantitative or qualitative research. This strategy is also seen as an easy approach with low risk, but does not take a researcher very far (Mason, 2006). The advantages of this method are as follows. The first advantage is it is not hard for an experienced quantitative

researcher to deduce how to subsume several qualitative demonstrations or examples. Also, for a skilled qualitative researcher, it is not difficult to include a quantitative rationale which can be taken from documents or published resources. However, the disadvantage of this method is a lack of genuine endeavour to explicate dialogues. Therefore, the research strategy and design are administered according to either a qualitative or a quantitative methodological rationale (Mason, 2006). Mason claims that this type of approach tends to reside in either qualitative or quantitative methods, meanwhile it does not lead the researcher to the exciting distinctive features under its broad type.

Secondly, mixing methods to ask and answer differently conceived or separate questions strategy is appropriate to a research in which researchers sometimes feel that there are various sets of research questions. These sets of research questions are related to the same entire topic; however, they do not particularly link analytically to one other. For example, a study of human–animal interactions may investigate the meat industry, farming, the role of animals in literature, family pets, hunting, the media, zoo cultures, weather etc., but the researcher will not want to make an argument about how these various parts are associated. Mason comments that this kind of research can be studied as multi–part projects and different methodologies are essential for the overall presentation. A parallel logic is embedded in this kind of approach. It is different from the rhetorical logic in the sense that any one approach is not essential to be a part of each small study. That is, each small study possesses its own design and logic, generation of data, explanation and analysis also run in parallel. Mason (2006) proposes that this approach is relatively simple to do, providing medium risk, but granting limited advantages or benefits. However, advantages of this method are possibilities to be generated for new concepts or ideas across the mini–study or projects and across methodological ranges. Whereas, the disadvantage of this method is that; there might not be a dominant explication of a qualitative or a quantitative framework that fits to all mini projects or studies.

Thirdly, mixing methods to ask questions about connecting parts, segments or layers of a social whole is proper for some studies which are designed to have

multiple or several elements. This approach deals with an integration of connecting parts as a whole. Mason suggests that this approach might also deploy various methods due to a reason that each is likely to be the most suitable one for its particular piece of the research issue. Besides, a combination of each method can provide better understanding of the whole research and address a useful set of questions. To give an example, if a research project is concerned with 'how' and 'under what conditions children learn successfully', one may also need to consider "a secondary analysis of national or local quantitative data on educational outcomes for children against different demographic and socio–economic criteria, school based cultural ethnographies at specifically selected schools and interviews with 'key informants in and outside school" etc. (Mason, 2006, p.6). It can be viewed that there are many possibilities for suitable research questions for this research topic. Hence, it is claimed that each method within this approach has given intention to create or produce data on a particular piece or part of a whole study. An integrative logic is embedded in the approach. It is significant for researchers to realise that their presuppositions regarding how layers or levels of data match one another become the finding or result of integration models or theories and that other theories are also counted as plausible. In Mason's opinion, this approach is difficult to do. It can work well if consensual and a clear integration model of data is presented. As for its disadvantages, approaches, theories and methods supporting the studies might not be consensual and difficulties can be clearly seen during the time of setting up research questions and at a stage of an integrative analysis of various features of data. On the other hand, the advantage of using this strategy is that it provides data in integration model for theorising the 'whole' picture of research. (Mason, 2006).

Next, mixing methods to achieve accurate measurement through a triangulation strategy is proper for studies seeking to integrate data and use 'triangulation' for its analysis. In other words, it refers to researches in which a social phenomenon is measured from at least two or more distinct vantage positions to pinpoint the phenomenon, or to develop, validate or examine the precision of the observation. This triangulation version is based on a corroborative logic. That is, various forms of method and data are employed to confirm or corroborate one another or what

they are measuring. Mason argues that this strategy is rather difficult and has limited benefits due to a variety of approaches and methods. That is, in social science research, the emphasis on the precision of measurement cannot easily fit with the complexity of this type of research, its processes and its explication. However, this type of approach tends to suit 'geographical co–ordinates' than explicating or explaining social phenomena (Mason, 2006).

The fifth strategy is mixing methods to ask distinctive but intersecting questions. This approach looks at various dimensions or it is called 'multi–dimensional perceptions of the problems or issues of the social world. A multi–dimensional logic is embedded in this kind of strategy. That is, various approaches and methods have their own potential and strengths that allow researchers to comprehend social complexity and multi–dimensionality. The multi–dimensional logic is different from the integrated, the corroborative and the parallel logic because of 'intersection'. The advantage of this kind of strategy is the chances for using creative tensions and constructing on important strength of various approaches. It is viewed that this strategy is very difficult to carry out which can be regarded as its disadvantage. However, it tends to increase explanation for social science and assists researcher to think 'outside the box'. Besides, this approach helps researchers to inquire into new types of questions in order to improve or develop comprehension of multi–dimensional pathways as well as to be creative procedurally (Mason, 2006).

The last strategy is mixing methods opportunistically. Compared to the other approaches, researchers are able to take control of their research designs, procedures, and the forms of data emerging from a mixed–methods study (Mason, 2006). Sometimes, data from mixing methods can also be obtained unexpectedly or accidently more than the actual design of research methods. Particularly, sets of existing data are available without expectation or in which access becomes available to an inherent source of data. Mason comments that this type of mixing methods cannot be considered as a strategy because of a lack of intrinsic logic which can be difficult to put it into practice.

To sum up, the intellectual and practical tasks of connecting and analysing data gained from mixed methods research can be different due to the nature of the research. They also depend upon what the researcher is looking for and which strategy the research is adopted. My study, therefore, has selected to adopt the third strategy which is the mixing methods to ask questions about connecting parts, segments or layers of a social whole. That is because the main study methods of this study involved collecting data from teachers and student interviews, teacher–student teaching and learning classroom observations, audio recordings of classroom teachings as to answer the three main research questions which are:

> (1) What cross–cultural communication strategies are applied in the Thai EFL classroom?
>
> (2) Why native English lecturers and Thai students do use cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom?
>
> (3) What factors contribute to effective communication between native English lecturers and Thai students in the Thai EFL classroom?

As stated earlier, various methods might be spread out or deployed in this approach as each tends to be the most appropriate one which also provides answers to its own specific part of the problem or research question. The combination of all methods can also give a better understanding of the whole research. To demonstrate, teacher and student interviews provide different opinions or perspectives toward CCC(s) and CSs; the two parties applied in the Thai classroom. Besides, the interviews also provide some answers to the second and the third research question. Meanwhile, the observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings can give a sense of what the Thai EFL classroom looks like as well as revealing the different types of CCC(s), CSs and pedagogic strategies teachers and students used during their conversation. At the same time, these qualitative mixed methods also complement each other as different methods lead to the exploration of other aspects in the study.

3.1.5 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis was selected as a qualitative analytic method to analyse both the pilot study and main study data for this current research. Thematic analysis is a largely–applied qualitative method (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Boyatzis, 1998; Roulston, 2001). Braun and Clarke (2006) claim that this type of analytic method provides a theoretically–flexible and practicable approach in order to analyse qualitative data.

Besides, Holloway and Todres (2003) comments that thematic analysis ought to be viewed as a basic method for qualitative analysis. Braun and Clarke assert that thematic analysis becomes the first qualitative method of analysis that researchers ought to learn because it gives essential competences which can be beneficial for carrying out various features or forms of qualitative research. According to Boyatzis (1998), thematic analysis is not only characterised as a particular method but also can be seen as an instrument to employ across several methods. In addition Braun and Clarke (2006) claim that the advantage of thematic analysis is its flexibility. Qualitative analytic methods can be divided into two groups. The first group is derived or stems from theoretical or epistemological positions, for example, interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) and conversation analysis (CA). Apart from these, discourse analysis (DA), narrative analysis and grounded theory are placed in this camp. However, these analytical methods can be presented variously within the generic theoretical framework. The second group contains analytic methods which are independent of theory and epistemology. Also, the methods in this group can be adapted and used across the domain of theoretical and epistemological approaches (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Although thematic analysis is frequently framed as an experiential or a realist method (Aronson, 1994; Roulston, 2001), this analytic method is firmly placed in the second group. Thematic analysis is also congruent with constructionist and essentialist paradigms (Braun and Clarke, 2006). They assert that thematic analysis can give detailed, rich and complex explanations of data.

3.1.5.1 The definition of thematic analysis and its application.

According to Braun and Clarke (2006, p.6), "thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data". This method arranges and explicates data which is established in thick and rich detail. Stated by Boyatzis (1998), thematic analysis helps researchers interpret different perspectives of the study topic. On the other hand, it is suggested that there is no obvious recognition on what thematic analysis is and how researchers should set about using it (Boyatzis, 1998; Attride–Stirling, 2001; Tuckett, 2005). Thematic analysis is different from other analytic methods because it attempts to explain designs or patterns across qualitative data, for example; thematic decomposition analysis, thematic discourse analysis, grounded theory and IPA. Braun and Clarke (2006) claim that thematic decomposition is a specific name for thematic discourse analysis which mentions stories, themes (patterns) of data and creates language theory.

Clarke (2005) states that thematic discourse analysis is employed in order to point to a domain of analysis design or pattern starting with thematic analysis of a social constructionist epistemology in which designs are recognised as socially generated, though, no discursive analysis is conducted. Thematic form of analysis is similar to the interpretative repertoire form of discourse analysis. In comparison with grounded theory or IPA as well as other methods such as discourse analysis, content analysis, and narrative analysis, thematic analysis is not similar to any 'pre–existing theoretical framework. Therefore, thematic analysis can be applied with various frameworks (mostly but not all).

Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that thematic analysis can be a realist or an essentialist method that informs meanings, experiences as well as the participants' realities. Besides, thematic analysis can be viewed as a constructionist method used to investigate pathways where experiences, meanings, events and realities have impacted on discourses performing in the society. In this current study, thematic analysis was selected as the analytic method for analysing teacher–student interviews, observations of classrooms and audio recordings of classroom

teachings as it can be used within different frameworks. Hence, in this study, the main research frameworks are comprised of two theories which are sociocultural theory and Engeström's activity theory. Also, another reason of choosing thematic analysis to become the analytic method for the current study is in line with the above statements which referred to thematic analysis as the method used to examine the ways in which participants in this current study: native English teachers, Thai teachers and Thai students had experienced different teaching and learning approaches. Moreover, their beliefs and practices in class, teacher–student conversations, the use of cross–cultural communication strategies taking place in the Thai EFL classrooms, and its reality of Thai student low English proficiencies have given the effects on discourse or communication operating within the society, in this case within a Thai university. In addition, the themes emerged from my critical analysis of communication taxonomies (see section 2.6 in chapter 2 for CSs taxonomies).

3.2 Research setting and participants

3.2.1 Setting

This study was conducted in a Thai provincial University in Phitsanulok province which is located outside of Bangkok, the capital city of Thailand. Phitsanulok province is the major city of the lower northern region. Significantly, it was the birthplace of King Naresuan the Great. This provincial University yearns to be the 'University of Innovation'. The University was officially established on 29th July, 1990. The inclusive university meets expectations of the public sector in furnishing cutting–edge and various programmes within 22 faculties and colleges, as well as having a demonstration school. To illustrate, the social sciences cluster consists of two colleges and five faculties which are the International College, College of ASEAN Community Studies, Faculty of Business, Economics and Communications, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Humanities, Faculty of Law, and Faculty of Social Sciences. The science and technology cluster consists of

two schools, four faculties and one institute which are the School of Logistics and Supply Chain, School of Renewable Technology, Faculty of Agriculture, Natural Resources and Environment, Faculty of Architecture, Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Science, The Institute for Fundamental Study. The health sciences cluster consists of seven faculties which are the Faculty of Allied Health Sciences, Faculty of Dentistry, Faculty of Medical Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, Faculty of Nursing, Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, and Faculty of Public Health. Besides, there is the academic integration of the Graduate School, which functions as a Faculty. According to a report by the Division of Academic Affairs in 2014, the number of students who studied in this University came from 77 provinces and 21 foreign countries. There were 16,263 Thai undergraduate and 79 foreign students. The number of Thai graduate and professional students was 3,644, whereas there were 80 foreign graduate students. There were 2,754 teaching staff including professors, associate professors, assistant professors, Thai lecturers and foreign lecturers. Additionally, the information stated about the University was taken in 2014.

The study (both pilot and main study) was conducted in the Department of English language, Humanities Faculty. Currently, the English Language Department has teaching staff of about 50, and 5 of them are foreign lecturers from the United Kingdom, the United States, and the Philippines. Lecturers at the English Department either have gained their Master degree in Thailand or abroad on TESOL, Linguistics, Translation or Literature. The department of English language, Humanities Faculty offers undergraduate programmes–Bachelor of Arts in English (B.A. English), Master of Arts programme in English (M.A. English) and Doctor of Philosophy in English (Ph.D. English). Each year a number of undergraduate students from various faculties need to take English subjects as part of their mandatory subjects. The substantial number of undergraduate students enrolling in the University each year has resulted in the large sized language classrooms with a number of students ranging from approximately 15–85 students in each class.

3.2.2 Participants

3.2.2.1 Population and sample of pilot study

The population of the pilot study was the native English lecturers teaching English subjects and Thai undergraduate students taking English courses at the University. The choice of students and teachers was due to convenience and willingness for participation in the research. For the pilot study, the sample comprised 4 native English lecturers (2 American and 2 British) and 195 Thai EFL undergraduate students enrolled in first, second and third year university courses in the following majors: Science, Business, Tourism and Psychology.

The native English lecturers who participated in this pilot study were two experienced American lecturers who had more than 5 years of experience teaching English to Thai students, a British lecturer who had more than 10 years of experience teaching English to Thai students in Thailand and a British lecturer who began teaching in the University 2 months. Previously, these four native English lecturers had been assigned to teach different English courses; 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes', 'English Conversation' and 'Introduction to Business'. For the Thai student samples in the classroom observations, a total of 57 Thai EFL students age 18 to 21 were observed for the use of cross–cultural communication strategies. They were first to third year students whose majors were Public Relations and Psychology. For the focus groups of Thai student samples, a total of 20 (10 male and 10 female) Thai EFL students took part in the focus group interviews.

3.2.2.2 Population and sample of main study

The population of the main study was the native English lecturers, Thai lecturers of English at the University and Thai undergraduate students studying at the University. The choice of students and teachers was also due to convenience and willingness for participation in the present research. For the current or main study, the sample comprised 2 native English lecturers (one American and one British) 2 Thai lecturers of English subjects and 349 Thai EFL undergraduate students

enrolled in first, second, third and fourth year university courses in the following majors: Public Health, Engineering, Social Science, Law, International Business, Business and Management, Political Science, and Tourism. These undergraduate Thai students aged 18 to 23 were observed for the use of cross–cultural communication strategies and communication strategies occurred while studying in the Thai EFL classroom. Due to a large number of students per class in the classroom observation, focusing on students' communication and interactions could be difficult, therefore, four volunteer students as participants were accounted for purposive sampling. In other words, they were being the respresentatives of each sample size. The application of CCC(s) and CS(s) applied by these sixteen students could be easily focused or observed apart from the whole class communication and interactions for the in-dept understandings despite various English language competencies each student possessed. With various English competencies of these students' participants, detailed information on CCC(s) or CS(s) application whilst communicating with their lecturer could be captured and indicated. This research was based on case study approach using thematic analysis as the method of analysis; hence, small samples which help generate themes can be applied (Bruan and Clarke, 2013).

The American lecturer who took part in this main study had more than 5 years of experience teaching English to Thai students. He had been assigned to teach two English courses: 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' and 'Communicative English for Research Presentation'. The British lecturer who participated in this main study has been teaching at the university for only 12 months. This lecturer has been assigned to teach three courses: 'Introduction to Business', 'Introduction to International Business' and 'Production and Cooperation Management'. These two native English lecturers were the main participants from the pilot study. In addition, there were 2 Thai lecturers of English who participated in the main study. They have been teaching English at the university for more than 5 years. Both of them had been assigned to teach several English courses which were 'Fundamental English', 'Communicative English for Academic Analysis', 'English in Business', 'Academic English', 'Creative Writing', 'English Conversation' and 'Professional English'.

3.3 Pilot study

3.3.1 Data collection procedures of the pilot study

In this section, the justification for the methods of data collection in this pilot study is considered. Different methods were selected according to appropriateness and consideration to each research question. Prior to conducting the pilot study data collection, the ethical issues were considered and addressed respectively. Firstly, formal letters asking for permission to conduct research in the University were sent to gatekeepers or the authorities of the university in order to gain access to locations in which the research would be taking place. Secondly, letters were sent to the Director of the university, Dean of Humanities Faculty which the native English lecturers work for; one who was in charge of the research areas of the university and the four deans from faculties which students belonged to. Thirdly, informed consent was sought from all participants; British, American lecturers and students who were present in class for the observations, as well as those who were involved in the focus group interview. The consent form addressed that informants' details, their rights, interest, and other information related to them would be kept confidentially and anonymously (see appendix A). Also, participant roles, approximate duration of time to be involved and benefits they could gain were clearly stated and elaborated in the consent letter. Next, briefing about the research nature, its purposes, research methods and how data were going to be collected through the prospective methods, were conducted. After perceiving the research details, all of the participants were, again, informed to sign the consent form as an agreement to take part in it. After signing a consent form, participants also had their rights to withdraw their consent at any time they wished and without giving any reasons. With the consent form, participants were guaranteed that their information and data given for the research would be kept securely under measures to safeguard it without any disclosure of their individual identity. Lecturers and students' real names were replaced with fictitious name, letters or code. Similarly, their quotes or comments from interviews and reflective journals remained anonymous with the fictitious name or code. Regarding the interview, the participants were not obliged to answer all questions. Thus, the

unanswered questions were skipped and the interview had moved on. The interviewee was free to withdraw from the research at any time before, during or after the conducted interview. The interview was recorded; the participant had to agree with it. The meeting for the interview had aimed to produce data that could be used for research purposes only and not for commercial use. Therefore, the consent form clearly explained that this interview would be used only for academic purpose. The video recording of taught lessons were kept safe as files using a password protection in my computer in order to provide a sample for the thesis and will be destroyed after this study has been completed. Next, lecturers and students knew that they would have chances to view their recording. So if there was anything they did not want in the recording or they would like to be taken out, they all had rights to inform the researchers to do so. After the data had been collected, the hard copies of interview transcription, and observation schedules were safely stored in a locked filing cabinet in my research office. The filing cabinet in my research office has a padlock which I am the only person who has an access to it. Last but not least, soon after the data from interviews, observations, focus groups being analysed were anonymised and each participant was referred to by a number, or letter code. A single password protected document contained the real names and these identifiers on spreadsheets with secured encryption code files in my computer.

3.3.1.1 Data collection instruments

Interview

According to Breakwell (1990, p.81) as cited in King and Horrocks (2010), "the interview approach relies heavily upon respondents being able and willing to give accurate information". King and Horrocks suggest that qualitative interview is assumed to provide precise data or information which has yet to be revealed. According to Bell (2005, p.157), "one major advantage of the interview is its adaptability". The interviewers are able to reflect on the responses or answers provided by the interviewee and take the findings or results into various perspectives or directions. Neil *et al.* (2008) claims that within the interview

schedules, the openness of the questions will be placed from structured to unstructured. According to Neil *et al*. (2008), there are three types of interview schedules which comprise of structured interviews, semi–structured interviews and unstructured interviews.

The structured interviews are comprised of multiple–choice or closed questions. The advantages of this type of interview are the chances to identify 'critical path basis' of a large schedule, for example, if the answer to question 5 is 'b', go to section 8 which can be very complicated to follow in the questionnaire. The semi–structured interview can be employed for data collection though it is a much more flexible type. Neil *et al*. (2008) claims that to produce this kind of interview schedule, it is essential for the researcher to start with verifying the number of questions derived from the research's themes. Later on, the answers received from the interviewees can either lead the researcher to enquire more in–depth questions or carry on to the main question. The unstructured interviews are used to investigate a preliminary domain of the research while the researcher is trying to build up or set up a clear focus for the investigation. The unstructured interviews are also employed at the later stage of research related to specific viewpoints of an issue, significant, unique or specialised data or information given by subject, course or departmental leaders. Neil *et al*. (2008) suggests that the researcher should prepare a couple of questions in advance for providing the chance for the interviewee or the respondent to inform the researcher regarding the issue related to the research topic.

The semi–structured interview was chosen for data collection of the pilot study. I had considered that there might be some themes related to the study prior to the collection of the data such as the application of CCC(s) and CSs between native English lecturers, and Thai students as participants; some cultural issues amongst teachers and students; Thai students and their English proficiencies; teacher's pedagogical approaches, their practices and attitudes. The semi–structured interviews provided chances for me to enquire teachers and students as participants some in–depth questions which needed to be explored further in the main study. The interviews of this pilot study were conducted with the four target

native English lecturers and four focus group interviews of Thai students in the University. The native English lecturer interviews were face–to–face, one–to–one interviews which lasted from approximately 30–50 minutes each. Following Denscombe (2011), the most common type of interview is the 'one–to–one' that entails a meeting between one informant and one researcher. It is not only easy to carry out but it also can illustrate interviewee's opinions, perspectives revealed from one resource–the interviewee. Therefore, this kind of interview assists the researcher to locate some particular thoughts with a specific person, in this case, the native English lecturers from American and the United Kingdom.

Focus groups

Apart from one–to–one interviews with the native English lecturers, a focus group interview was selected as one of the main research methods employed in the pilot study. Focus group interviews administered to Thai students who were available and participating contained questions adapted from Kuesoongnern (2012) (see appendix B). Each focus group interview was also face–to–face interview which lasted approximately from 40 minutes to nearly one hour. Each focus group comprised of five students who studied with native English lecturer no.1, 2, 3 and 4. Therefore, there were four focus groups and a total of 20 students as participants in these focus group interviews. The reasons of conducting focus group interviews were to seek for students' feelings, attitudes, and their thoughts which would be on, for example; cross–cultural communication strategies and communication strategies, their thoughts on the meanings of CCC(s) and CS(s), their perceptions toward the English language teaching and learning, their attitudes towards their native and Thai lecturers of English, problems of learning English, and their application of CCC(s) and CS(s) in order to convey both verbal and nonverbal meanings while having conversation with lecturers in the Thai EFL classroom.

Classroom observation

According to Mason (2002), researchers who decide to choose observation as their methodological tool have to be sure about the reasons for applying it. Mason

proposes possible reasons underlying the use of observation as a method to generate data. The first reasoncan be derived from researcher's ontological view– the researcher can see various interpretations from actions, interactions, and behaviours that people express. Mason adds that researchers' interest can be taken from a scope of social world dimensions in a variety of forms such as written texts, verbal answers or responses to the interviews, the use of rhetoric, conversation, daily routines, language, lifestyle of people or behaviours, nonverbal behaviours and constructive documents or texts in some settings etc. Apart from this, researchers may be interested in a setting or its context where the social phenomenon occurs. Moreover, the researcher might want to connect himself or herself with the 'naturally occurring' phenomenon as it is observed in a setting not in an experiment; for example, in social events or organisations–a café, a town or community, a shopping mall, a clinic or hospital, a meeting or conference, a law court and a classroom (Mason, 2002). Following my ontological perspective, I am not only interested in the pathway where the social phenomenon–that is, where the English language teaching and learning in the Thai EFL classroom takes place, but I also would like to associate myself with the traditional concepts versus contemporary concepts of English language teaching and learning, the pedagogical approaches and cross–cultural issues emerging in the Thai EFL classroom setting. Therefore, my ontological perspective has coincided with Mason (2002, p.85)'s first possible reason in using the observation as a method of generating qualitative data.

Secondly, my reason of employing the observation is also in line with Mason (2002, p.85)'s explanation that if a researcher makes a decision to use observation in the qualitative research, the researcher should have an epistemological position demonstrating that evidence or knowledge of the social world could be created through participating, experiencing or observing 'real–life' or 'natural' settings including interactive incidents or situations. As discussed earlier about the epistemological position of this study, it is seen that my experiences of teaching Thai students in the EFL classroom at a University helped provide observational evidences and knowledge of the social world in the Thai EFL classrooms which are in the natural settings and interactive classroom situations especially in terms

of Thai students' learning features, teaching and learning beliefs, teachers–students practices as well as their pedagogical approaches. In other words, the use of the observation has allowed the researcher to perceive or know, interpret and experience some significant data in a multidimensional way. It has also led the researcher to create the data on social interaction in the particular contexts (Mason, 2002). According to this, I am able to perceive various perspectives, experience and interpret teachers and students' communication and interactions in the Thai EFL context and their use of CCC(s) and CSs.

Also, my motive of using the observation as one of the research methods is in accordance with Mason (2002, p.86)'s sixth possible reason. That is, the researcher might determine the use of the observation as a beneficial method in providing the answers for the research questions or using this technique in order to get closer to them from a specific viewpoint as part of the multiple methods. In this study, the observation is considered one of the main methods, apart from semi–structured interviews and audio–recordings of the classroom teaching. The observation helps explore answers, mainly from the research question 1 and 2.

According to Cohen *et al*. (2003), there are two significant kinds of observation. The first type is known as 'participant observation' and the second type is 'non–participant'. In the participant observation, researchers become the observers who got involved or engaged in all exercises that they plan to do in their observations. The researcher role is likely to be covered in this type of observation regarding the concern of the other participants. Cohen *et al*. (2003, p.109) suggest that covert is not essentially required for participant observation. Moreover, they illustrate the role of non–participant researcher as:

> …the researcher sitting at the back of a classroom coding up every three seconds the verbal exchanges between teacher and pupils by means of a structured set of observational categories.

My pilot study data collection using the non–participant observation type following Cohen et al.'s above statement except the observations schedules were

semi–structured schedules. In the pilot study, six lessons of classroom observations with the American lecturer no.3 and the British lecturer no.2 (3 lessons observed per one lecturer) were conducted in the real teaching–learning interaction context. The observation allowed recording of cross–cultural communication strategies between Thai learners and their native English lecturers. The observation schedule was adapted from Chunlan (2008)'s classroom observation form. It was produced in order to capture CCC strategies and specific paralinguistic features such as body language, gestures and facial expressions

Video recording and transcription

Following Tilstones (1998), the use of video recordings as a tool to collect the data in the classroom provides two important benefits to researchers. The first benefit is the researcher can produce a constant or permanent record. Therefore, it is a permanent record of the action–interactions amongst teachers and students in the classroom can be replayed as often as it is demanded. The second advantage of the video recording is to provide chances for professional groups to create analysis details by applying their competences or skills to interpret the recorded data as evidences. Additionally, Lomas (1995) as cited in Tilstones (1998) claims that another benefit of video recording is its provision in viewing nonverbal interactions, which can be part of the study's main focus. Thus, the reason of employing the video recording in the Thai EFL classroom is in accordance with Lomas's (1995) statement in the way that this current research also looked at nonverbal communications and nonverbal interactions of teachers and students in the classroom. Having perceived teacher and student's nonverbal communication as parts of the CSs and CCCs which emerged in the Thai EFL classroom of the main study, therefore, interaction and communication phenomena of an American lecturer no.1 and a British lecturer no.4 with their students were captured in order to address the research question 1– 'How do native English lecturers and non–native English students use CCCs in the Thai EFL classroom?' With the assistance of two professional video recorders who are technicians at the university, two hours of video recordings (one hour per one lecturer) were conducted. One video camera was used; meanwhile one clip–on microphone was attached to the native English lecturers. The

focus was on talk between teacher and students while the video had captured all verbal and nonverbal communication of both parties. The video recordings and its digital images were transferred onto DVDs and by the help of video recording technicians. Teacher–student interactions and communication exchanges were selected and transcribed.

Moreover, Cavendish *et al*. (1990) as cited in Tilstone (1998) suggested that there are three main disadvantages regarding the use of video recordings. The first disadvantage concerns the use of camera which can provide an optional view of the behaviours or actions under examination or review. Secondly, the analysis of the recording can be time–consuming and complicated. Another disadvantage of video recording has concerned the use of recording tool or equipment which cannot be promptly available to the researchers. At this point, the pilot study had chosen to video record the classroom teachings as a pathway to examine CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogic strategies which emerged in the Thai classroom and to capture behaviours and reactions amongst teachers and students in the natural classroom setting. However, the main study data collection which will be discussed later on had opted out of the use of video recording of the classroom teachings because it was considered a time–consuming method. Besides, an issue of unnaturally behaviours and reactions of Thai students seen in the video recording led me in making a decision to omit the use of it as one of the main study data collection methods. To demonstrate, I could see that the presence of the video camera brought certain impacts upon Thai student behaviours. This prevented students from expressing their real or natural behaviours, for example, students hardly slept in the classroom as they were aware of being recorded in the video recording. It was also found that some students were not being proactive in answering questions, initiating discussions or talks with their lecturers as much as they used to do in class. That was because they were afraid of providing incorrect answers in front of the camera. Having realised these matters or concerns, the use of audio recordings was considered replacing the use of video recording due to the following reasons: firstly, it is easier to engage with and secondly, it is seen as being less obtrusive method to undertake in the classroom (Tilstone, 1998).

3.3.2 Teacher and student interviews

The first part of pilot work focussed on using interviews and focus groups to explore the research questions in detail. Therefore, this research had helped develop understandings of teacher and student perspectives and to assess whether the initial conceptual model was adequate. This work also tested whether the questions asked teachers and students were understood and if they stimulated useful insights. Therefore, initial findings from interviews and focus groups had been analysed initially in terms of the research questions of the pilot study. The following research questions were produced before the main study data collection. Hence, the research questions were revisited after the pilot study data collection and they had been changed slightly after having reviewed more of the literature review.

Research question 1: How do native English lecturers and non–native English students use cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom?

– Teachers used a range of CCC strategies, some of which were specific to language teaching while others were more general pedagogical approaches that align well with the cultural context.

– The idea of a 'native speaker' had been called into question in that one experienced teacher (No.1) used CCC strategies such as speaking slowly, clearly and did not speak 'like a native speaker'. He also exaggerated his mouth so that students could really see how he formed his mouth when he spoke or taught in class.

> "…I guess…my communication strategy, personally is speaking slowly and clearly when I'm communicating with them. I don't speak like a native speaker…I think it's more important they understand me than it is to hear a native speaker".

– The CCC strategies of an experienced native English lecturer no.2 were sensitive; offering opportunity to students and not forcing them to do anything if

they are not ready (aware of how they are acting or behaving). He also tried to close the gap and distance between students and lecturers by adding some Thai to help students when they did not understand. "…I try to be sensitive to student. If I feel like I have given them the opportunity to try to understand in English and they can't get it and I might put a little of Thai to help them along… I can see when the student is trying to close down that means they are not understanding anymore…I can maybe give them a little bit of Thai and until they open up again and then go back to English".

– The CCC strategies of an experienced native English lecturer no.3 were using humour, applying real world situation and things related to students, also putting everything in writing including instructions and directions in all activities. The reason why he did these was because he perceived and learned that his students were visual learners. He also demonstrated examples by having students perform that example before starting any activities.

> "…I try to make thing light as much as possible by using humour or if it's possible–jokes. I just try to use real world situation, not just type of the statistical stuff"

– An experienced native British lecturer no.4 was not likely to apply any cross–cultural communication strategies in classroom. His strategy was much related to his own teaching style which he believed that it would work effectively with Thai students and that was being autocratic or being harsh on students.

> "In terms of how I communicate, I try to be very autocratic in my class. I'm very harsh on my class…Also, I have told them that my strategies are too harsh. So too autocratic".

– Thai EFL students applied various cross–cultural communication strategies such as using simple words and vocabulary, asking their lecturer to repeat that sentence again or saying "again, please" which was known as 'asking for repetition', circumlocution–describing the properties of the target object or action. Other

strategies used were drawing a picture, writing words or vocabulary down onto their notebook and showing them to the lecturer and calling friends for assistance.

– Many students also used mime, hand gesture which is part of body language as well as actions at the same time while communicating with their lecturers.

> "I will explain and give a lot of details. It's like playing a mime game. I elaborate it until he understands. I describe features, for example, if I have to describe a car, I would say: there are wheels, they are like this until he makes a correct guess". (Tourism student, 1st year)

Research question 2: What are the perceptions of native English lecturers and non–native English students regarding the use of cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom?

– Even though different lecturers had defined their own or unique combinations of communication strategies as mentioned in RQ1, the majority of native English lecturers thought that cross–cultural communication strategies were important and should be applied by both lecturers and students in order to get the message across. By using communication strategies, they helped close cultural distance between teachers and students.

> " I already mention too about the cultural distance that can be created between you and students if you are not sensitive to how they're feeling…I am back to being sensitive and making sure they don't shut down…". (Native British lecturer no.2)

– The students gave various meanings of communication strategies though some of them had not heard of this term before:

> "I am not sure what communication strategy means but it might refer to strategy which gives us confidence to speak". (2nd year Math student)

– All of the students thought that communication strategies helped them to convey messages or what they want to say to their native English lecturer:

> "It helps to communicate with anybody and also my teacher. We need to find the way to be able to easily communicate with each other". (1st year tourism student)

– Focus group students suggested several useful communication strategies that were useful for them such as hand gestures, body language, friends, mobile phones, and drawing or pictures.

> "Hand gestures and body language help us when we get stuck speaking and can't think of words to say in English. Every part of my body can help express and communicate with another too…" (2nd year Psychology student)

– Most of Mathematics students suggested friends as a useful communication strategy because they thought that their friends can understand them and were able to translate and convey their meanings to their lecturer:

> "I choose friends because my friends will understand me more than a dictionary. I will select my friend to be a medium to convey me thoughts for me. If this friend can't help, I will call another one".

– Native English lecturers also mentioned that Thai students made use of their friends to help them communicate, which is the Thai way of helping together:

> "Thai students, they kind of work in groups quite a lot. If I would happen to say something in English, they didn't understand, then sometimes, their friends would quickly come and help them, which is part of the way of Thai helping together". (Native British lecturer no.2)

Research question 3: What factors influence communication and miscommunication between the lecturers and the students?

– There were various factors that influence miscommunication according to native English lecturers' opinions such as low English competence of the students– especially grammar, being shy, fear of foreigners, fear of making mistakes and

fear of embarrassing themselves that derived from the fear of authority as suggested in the literature review by Saiyasombat (2012).

– According to the majority of EFL learners, factors influencing miscommunication came from students' competency of English; such as limited vocabulary, inaccurate accent and problem understanding lecturers' accents.

> "I don't have solid background of vocabulary and English grammar. When we communicate, it can cause a miscommunication. My lecturer might not be able to receive a right message that I want to communicate". (2nd year Psychology student)

– Other factors which made it difficult for teachers to communicate with Thai students were cultural stereotypes, a peer pressure and introduction of technology (such as mobile phones or iPads) into classes.

> "So I think that a problem in classroom for communication. There's a barrier there and it's like something that is almost like a stereotype that students kind of assume something…maybe they had bad experience but in my class, I'll find I can break down those barriers and so as close the gap" (Native British lecturer no.2)

– From Thai EFL students' perspectives, other factors which influence communication were support or encouragement from lecturer to establish confidence in speaking up for the students, teachers' personality or identity and classroom atmosphere.

> " In the first class, I had tension. After studying with him for a while, I feel that he is friendly and smiley…I feel more relaxed now and I am not stress out anymore. If I say something wrong, he will not blame us. He will change and correct it for us. I will not feel embarrassed that I make mistakes. So it gives me confidence to speak out in class". (2nd year psychology student).

Research question 4: Due to lack of responses to emails from native English lecturers, students' learning outcome (midterm exams) could not be provided. As a result, the researcher was not able to discuss findings for this research question.

3.3.3 Observations, video analysis and use of the taxonomies

The second aspect of the pilot work was to assess the adequacy of the taxonomies developed by Bialystok (1990), Tarone (1983) and Dörnyei (1995) by observing classroom activities and exchanges.

Findings from video recordings

In the 'English for Communicative Purpose' class, it was found that cross–cultural communication strategies applied by students, which frequently occurred were the use of nonlinguistic means followed by literal translation and time gaining strategy (using fillers).

Excerpt 1 : Illustration of the use of non–linguistic means

Speaker		**Transcribed exchanges**
T	:	Who want to be student B ?
S	:	(Two students raised their hands at the same time)
T	:	You can be student B next time.
S	:	Silence (makes disappointed facial expression)

Excerpt 1 exemplifies the use of non–linguistic means which is facial expression. Previously, the student showed his disappointed face, and kept silent after a lecturer said something directly to him

Excerpt 2: Illustration of stalling or time gaining strategies (use of fillers).

Speaker	**Transcribed exchanges**
S:	Ah…midterm exam have a one exam?
T:	One exam.
S:	No…no choice…no…
T:	There will be some multiple choices, some writing.
S:	On…
T:	On one test.
S:	Eh…uh…when…when…
T:	In two weeks…no three weeks, three weeks.
S:	Depend on you.
T:	It will be in this class in three weeks. Right, we don't have classroom for everyone. So I'm giving my exam after midterm. So before midterm, next week–your oral exam. After midterm is your midterm.
S:	Ur…ur…ok…Thank you. (Bows her head twice and smiles)
T:	You're welcome.

Excerpt 2 demonstrates the use of fillers such as 'ah, eh, ur' in gaining time while she was thinking about what to say next. Interestingly, her gestures which are bow and smile can be seen as part of culturally respect. In Thai culture, head bow is used to show humbleness and respect to elders including parents and teachers.

In the 'Introduction to Business' class, it was observed that cross–cultural communication strategies applied by students, which frequently occurred were language switch, followed by the use of non–linguistic means. Other CCC strategies occurred during teacher and student interactions were literal translation, message abandonment, formal reduction and appeal for help.

Excerpt 3: Illustration of language switch and transliteration.

Speaker	**Transcribed exchanges**
S8 :	You touch hair me tam mai? Why? (Thai: why do you touch my hair?)
T :	What ? Your hair long.
S8 :	Lorlen. Mai meear rai (Thai: I'm just kidding, there is nothing)
T :	Chai (Thai: Yes)
T :	What is this word here ?
S9 :	Emancipate.
T :	Do you know what this word means ?
S9 :	Yeah. No use people.
S10:	Taapaasaaang grid plaewaaar rai (Thai : How do you say 'slave' in English?) (Asks and looks at her friends)
S11 :	Slave
T :	Very good, 'A'.

From this excerpt, it is seen that transliteration or literal translation occurred twice; when student 8 initiated a conversation asking why the lecturer touches her hair. Secondly, it was when student 9 replied to the teacher's question by saying "no use people". Transliteration often found when Thai students translate English using Thai sentence structure.

Excerpt 4 : Illustration of cross–cultural issue.

Speaker	Transcribed exchanges
T :	Any questions? Now it's the time to ask. I expect everybody to get a grade 'A' because everybody has been quiet.
S :	(Raises her hand).
T :	Yes, Jess.
S :	What is target industry mean ?
T :	That is what government is trying to get business expanded, alright? Get international business. That is what they are trying to do because …very good, Jess, very good.
S :	(Nods her head and writes note down on her notebook).

Excerpt 4 demonstrates cross–cultural issue. It can be seen that a lecturer was being sarcastic to the whole class when he said "Now it's the time to ask. I expect everybody to get a grade 'A' because everybody has been quiet". He actually said that because nobody was asking anything and still remained quiet. Only one student realised that she should have asked something regarding his statement.

Summary of findings from classroom observation

In the 'English Conversation and 'English for Communicative Purposes' class, language switching and the use of non–linguistic means were the main CCC strategies that both teachers and students applied in class.

Excerpt 5: Illustration of language switch applied by native English lecturer.

Speaker	**Transcribed exchanges**
T :	What is lemongrass ?
T :	Mai chai yaa ma now (Thai : Not grass lemon).
S :	(Laughs and smiles)
S :	Ta–Krai.

Excerpt 6: Illustration of helping each other as a feature of Thai student

Speaker	**Transcribed exchanges**
S8 :	Teacher, my friend group me (waves hand to call her friend)
T :	He's here now so it's the whole group. Why did you not come to group meeting?
S12 :	…..(remains silent)
S8 :	I'm sick jaoblaei (Thai : That's it)
T :	Why he shows one hour late ? I'm amazed he came in. (Looks at other students but not the target student who just came in late)
S8 :	I don't know.

Additionally, calling their friends for help and helping each other as mentioned in the student focus group interview was also found to be their communication strategy. This demonstrates a feature of Thai students; they tend to work in group and help each other. It can be viewed as a cultural value of a collectivism society

(Hofstede, 2012). When they see that their friend could not answer the teacher's question, many of them helped and replied the question for their friend.

To sum up, the results of this pilot study had shown that Thai EFL students applied a range of cross–cultural communication strategies in order to help maintain conversations with the native English lecturers. The patterns of CCC strategies used largely confirm the findings from the interviews and focus groups. Students' reported practices were observed and at the same time the teachers' pedagogical approaches were reflected in the strategies they used, and that the students in turn used. Furthermore, teacher's approaches encouraged students' to try different CCC strategies–so the teacher who was very supportive and non–threatening probably got a different set of CCC strategies while the authoritarian teacher was closing down student options.

3.4 Main study

3.4.1 Data collection procedures of the main study

In this part, the justification for methods of data collection in the main study is considered. Different methods were selected according to its appropriateness and consideration to each research question. In addition, the choice of data collection methods of the main study had been reconsidered and decided after the pilot study and after the research questions were revisited. Similar to the pilot study data collection procedure, before conducting the main study data collection, the ethical issues were considered and carried out respectively. To demonstrate, formal letters asking for permission to conduct a research in the University were sent to gatekeepers or the authorities of the university in order to gain access to the locations where the research would be taking place. Letters were sent to the director of the university, Dean of Humanities faculty which the native English lecturers and Thai lecturers of English work for, one to the academic in charge of the research areas of the university, and the deans from faculties to which students

belonged. Informed consent was sought from all participants; British, American, Thai lecturers and Thai students who were present in class for the observations, as well as those involved in one–to–one interview. Furthermore, other processes relating to the ethical considerations and issues during the time of main study data collection such as the distribution of consent forms to teachers and students as participants were carried out as in the pilot study data collection procedures (see section 3.3.1 data collection procedures of pilot study)

As mentioned earlier (see section 3.3.1.1 data collection instruments) about the disadvantages of video recording which are being 'complex' and 'time–consuming' method, I decided to omit the use of video recordings of the classroom teachings as a part of the main study data collection method. In addition, using video recording appeared to be undermining the validity of the research. For example, one native English lecturer refused to video record his classroom in the pilot study. The reason given by him was that the video recordings could prevent or distract the natural way and the setting of the classroom teaching and learning. Another example emerged while I was collecting the pilot study data using the video recording. I felt that students acted slightly differently when being recorded in the classroom. For fear that the use of video recordings could interferewith the natural reactions and behaviours of the Thai students while learning in the classroom, plus the consideration of disadvantages of the video recording, I decided to use classroom observation instead of the video recording. The main study research instruments and their data collection procedures will now be discussed.

3.4.2 Teacher interviews

In the main study, the purposive samplings comprised of two native English speaking lecturers, an experienced American lecturer; and a less experienced British lecturer, and two experienced Thai lecturers who had been teaching English at the University. These all took part in one–to–one semi–structured interviews. Many in–depth responses and answers were found after the teacher

interviews had been conducted in the pilot study, for example, English language teaching and learning, teachers' ideas, attitudes, beliefs toward their pedagogical practices, CCCs and CSs applied by teachers in the Thai EFL classroom, Thai students' English proficiencies etc. Therefore, these types of interviews were chosen and maintained in the main study with the object of discovering further themes emerging from the data. Additionally, reasons for selecting one–to–one interview and semi–structured interview is in accordance with the rationale presented in the pilot study (see section 3.3.1.1 data collection instruments on page 141-147). Each interview lasted approximately 45 minutes to 1 hour. The interview schedule and its questions remained the same after piloting the data collection methods as all lecturers were able to provide profound answers according to this interview schedule. Hence, there was a flow at the time of conducting questions and answers between the interviewer and the interviewee. (see appendix B for teacher's interview schedule).

3.4.3 Student interviews

The one–to–one and the semi–structured interview of 16 (9 male and 7 female) Thai students were administered in the main study data collection. These types of interviews were chosen as they could provide insights into students' attitudes toward their English language learning, teachers' teaching strategies–CCC(s) and CS(s), their opinions toward English language proficiencies, their views on teaching and learning atmosphere in the EFL classroom, their thoughts about cultural issues occurred in the classroom while studying English with the native English lecturer, their use of non–linguistic communication as well as how they tried to communicate with the lecturers in order to convey meanings in the classroom. Each interview lasted approximately 20 minutes to 1 hour. The reason for having a wide range of these interviews derived from my sensitivity, respect, understanding regarding the ethics for students as the interviewees. I kept in mind all the time and respected all of the answers or responses provided from the students. Even though I asked subsidiary questions to the main questions, I tried

not to make them feel threatened by demanding answers to all questions during the period of the interview. Having piloted the student interviews, it was also found that some questions in the interview schedules needed to be changed as they did not present direct or relevant findings of what this study wanted to examine such as students' grades and their performance in English language courses. Hence, a few questions in section 2 on 'specific questions of subject or English course taken' of the student interview schedule were omitted as they were not sufficiently focused to elicit valid data. Later on, the new version of the interview questions asked to each student as participant had been changed to make it more direct to the points.

3.4.4 Classroom observations

In the main study, the non–participant observation and the structured observation schedules were carried out. Due to the limitation of the video recordings of the classroom teachings and the refusal from the native English lecturers to video record their classroom for fear of distracting the natural way of teachings and learnings, the classroom observations were considered as a replacement main data collection method for the main study as this method could provide relevant answers and responses received from observing teachers–students' interaction, verbal and nonverbal communication occurring in the Thai EFL classrooms. The number of teachers participated in the classroom observations were two native English lecturers; the first one was from the United States. He was an experienced lecturer teaching the course of "Communicative English for Specific Purposes". Another was a less experienced British lecturer. He was assigned to teach the course of "Introduction to International Business" to the Thai students. Two experienced Thai lecturers (male and female lecturer) teaching the course of "Communicative English for Specific Purposes" were also observed in order to explore various CCC(s), CSs as well as the pedagogical approaches which emerged in the Thai EFL classes. In addition, the choice of teachers was due to convenience and willingness for participation in the research. Three lessons of

each lecturer were observed. Each teaching lesson lasted from approximately one to one and a half hour. Each class contained different numbers of students ranging from 15 to 82. The observation schedule was created after the pilot study and was partly adapted from Cohen *et al*. (2001). The structure of the observation schedule was mainly created by the researcher (see appendix C for the example of main study observational schedule). On the observation schedule, the classroom activities in each lesson were being observed or scanned every 2.30 minutes.

3.4.5 Audio recordings of classroom teachings

The audio recordings of classroom teachings were also selected to be one of the research methods in the main study data collection. The reason for using the audio recording was to replace the use of the video recording of the classroom teachings as there were some limitations caused by ethical considerations related to participants while conducting the video recordings. To demonstrate, two native English lecturers refused to video record their teachings as they were afraid that it would interfere the natural way of teaching and learning of the Thai EFL classrooms. Besides, the audio recordings of the classroom teachings helped capture CCC(s) and/ or CS(s) occurring throughout teachers and students conversation and interaction in the Thai EFL classrooms. These audio recordings were used to compliment the classroom observations. Twelve audio recordings of the classroom teachings of native English lecturers and Thai lecturers were recorded. The length of each audio recording and observation related to the length of that session which varied from approximately 45 minutes to one hour and a half. SONY's IC recorder was used to record the classroom teaching, learning and interaction sounds. With the help of an audio technician at the University, the recorder was able to plug in with the classroom speaker in order to capture the speaking and teaching sounds of the lecturer. Meanwhile, four students from each course were asked to hold a microphone according to their willingness so that the sounds of students speaking, communicating with the lecturers or with his or her peers in the classroom were also captured into the audio recorder.

3.5 Rigour, validity and trustworthiness in qualitative research

3.5.1 Rigour

Following Long and Johnson (2000), it is common for research studies to be evaluated and critiqued. They assert that the lack of research assessment on the articulation of research methods, the explicitness or accuracy of the findings as well as the credibility or integrity of research presuppositions established or the conclusion made can lead to the failure of a study. Henry (2015) confirms that rigour in qualitative research helps certify trustworthiness. He adds that a few categories to assess or evaluate qualitative research's trustworthiness were proposed by Lincoln and Guba in 1985. Subsequently, these categories were developed again by Lincoln. Similarly, Long and Johnson (2000); Henry (2015) agree on the same criteria, that is; in order to intensify or strengthen the trustworthiness of the research, researchers ought to consider and focus on the assessment or evaluation of research studies prior to preceding to the findings. They suggest that the means or tools to establish rigour can come from different sources such as reflective journal, self–description, prolonged engagement, prolonged observation, peer–questioning or debriefing.

During the time of collecting the pilot study and main study data, apart from considering the ethics of the participants, I had meetings with teachers and students in order to elicit information, get to know my participants, spend some time talking to them about their teachings and learnings in general. In other words, to conduct the prolonged engagement at the setting, I wanted to make everything clear for students and teachers as participants about my study, its purposes, what I expected them to do and receive before and after collecting the data. Therefore, the debriefing was conducted in order to help all participants gain more understanding about my research and data collection procedures. Prior to conducting the classroom observations for both pilot and main study, I conducted two observations of the target classes as to be sure about the size of class, the nature of each class, teacher–students' teaching and learning types, their communication and interaction within the EFL classrooms, their issues or

problem occurred in the classroom etc. Although I did not establish my own reflective journal while carrying on the collection of data, I checked and compared the answers or responses from semi–structured interviews of teachers and students with the literature review about what they said and whether their answers were consistent with each other or not.

3.5.2 Validity

Maxwell (1992) as cited in Flick (2014) proposes five types of validity which comprises of descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity, generalisability and evaluative validity. Maxwell explains that descriptive validity refers to "the factual accuracy of researchers' accounts of what they saw or heard in the field they studied" (p.285). That is, researchers would not mis–transcribe or mis–hear the statements of interviewees. Second, interpretive validity is based on the first kind. However, this second type emphasises on the degree or the extent the meanings of the statements, particularly in observation; are developed, utilised, and presented to the participants' perspectives. This also includes connotations received from the language used by participants (p.289). Third, theoretical validity refers to an explanation of validity as "a theory of some phenomenon" (p.291). Flick (2014) argues that these three types of validity suggested by Maxwell talk about the analysis and its account of presentation given by the researchers especially the material or the situation and how it was analysed. Fourth, generalisability refers to the basis of material analysis which also relates to the other parts or fields of the material or tool (Maxwell, 1992 as cited in Flick, 2014, p.485). Last but not least, evaluative validity refers to the efficiency of the evaluative framework utilised for categorising or analysing an activity (or statement). Maxwell claims that the first type of validity is the most crucial one as it is the base of all. He adds that the last two types of the validity are not significant for most qualitative research compared to the first three types.

According to Long and Johnson (2000), the concept of reliability in qualitative research can be accounted as 'the constancy or consistency' of an assessing tool or instrument. They add that this term can refer to 'confidence' in the collection of data. Following Mason (1996, p.145), there was evidence of the presupposition that methods of generating data can be perceived or conceptualised as instruments, that is; the tools or instruments can be regulated or standardised non–bias and neutral. Flick (2014) argues that reliability is viewed as the crucial criterion for evaluating qualitative research especially when it is used to assess against the basis of a certain theory concerning the problem or issue within the study and the research methods use. However, researchers can develop various conventions or ways to enhance the data's reliability and its interpretations. In qualitative research, the quality of documenting and recording data are the key elements for evaluating their achievement in interpretations and reliability (Kirk and Miller, 1986 as cited in Flick (2014)). For example, the reliability of observation also relies on the standard of note–taking. In addition, observation training and frequent observation assessment helps increase the reliability of the data. Flick adds that the reliability of interview data can be enhanced by examining or checking questions and following the interview guides. For the interpretation of research data, it is suggested that review of interpretative processes and of coding methods are able to enhance the reliability (Flick, 2014). I followed all of the statements and suggested processes mentioned above about various ways to increase the research reliability according to Flick and the other authors, I followed and were aware of them at the time of conducting this current study.

According to Silverman (2013, p.285), "validity refers to the credibility of our interpretations". As suggested by Peräkylä (2011, p.365), the validity of research is related to:

> …the interpretation of observations: whether or not the inferences that the researcher makes are supported by the data, and sensible in relation to earlier research.

Creswell (2014) comments that connotations of validity in qualitative research do not provide the same meanings as in quantitative research. He adds that validity is considered one of the qualitative research's strength. Validity is based on defining whether the research findings are explicit from researcher's standpoint. Creswell suggests that there are several terms addressing validity; for example, credibility, trustworthiness, and authenticity. According to Cohen *et al*. (2001, p. 121), "the most practical way of achieving greater validity is to minimize the amount of bias as much as possible". They add that sources of bias can come from several elements such as the characteristics of the respondent, the characteristics of the interviewer, and the essential content of the questions. Moreover, other elements or factors which are sources of bias can come from age, social class, gender, status, sexual orientation, religion, and race. That is, interviewees and interviewers are likely or often take their unconscious biological 'luggage' and their own experiences into the interview (Cohen *et al*. 2001). As interviews are human interactions, it is obvious that there will be an influence from the researcher on the interviewee as well as on the data (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1989).

To enhance the validity of interview data in the pilot study, the iterative approach was adopted. Besides, Maxwell's five types of validity were utilised in this current study both in the pilot study and the main study. To begin with, description validiy was applied in checking factual accuracy of data and findings of interview, observation and audio recording transcripts. The findings from teacher and student focus group interviews were internally checked and cross–checked with each other and with the classroom observations and video recordings of the classroom teaching and learning. This confirms whether or not what the interviewees had told me was trustworthy. At the same time, the interview contents were also checked against others; that is, focus group interviews were cross–checked against teacher interviews and vice versa. The demographic and some details of the research participants were rechecked by them for correctness of the information. Furthermore, themes emerged which from all interviewee transcripts were used to check whether or not the native English lecturers and Thai students shared the same topics or issues occurring

while communicating and interacting in the Thai EFL classrooms. As stated by Denscombe (2011), the repeated or recurrent themes in interviews identified or indicated the issue or thought shared amongst the participants; this provides confidence to the researcher when these themes were referred to in the study rather than the words deriving from the individuals or interviewees. At this point, the second type of Maxwell's validity came in, that is, interpretive validity helped interpret meanings from the account of themes that emerged from interview, observation and audio transcripts. Having mentioned that all three types of transcript data were cross-checked with one another, I could see that instances derived from each theme provide interpretation to the main research questions. As for the video recordings of the classroom teaching in the pilot study, the findings were checked against CSs taxonomies in order to seek the occurrence of CCC(s), CSs and pedagogic strategies applied by native English lecturers and Thai students during the classroom talks and interactions. Here, the third type of validity was applied as instances of CCC(s), CSs and pedagogic strategies employed by lecturers and students could be justified by cross-cultural communication theory, communication strategy taxonomies, sociocultural theory and Engeström's activity theory.

In the main study, three types of Maxwell's validity were also applied. The descriptive validity was employed; interview data from native English lecturers, Thai lecturers and Thai students had been checked with the classroom observations and the audio recordings of the classroom teachings. Moreover, the analysis of the classroom observations and audio recordings were analysed and checked against CSs taxonomies. In addition, themes which emerged from teacher and student interviews, classroom observations and audio recordings of classroom teaching and learning would also be rechecked by software called 'Nvivo 11'. The interpretive validity took part at this point. Some instances which represented incidents deriving from each theme were explained and justified. With the use of Nvivo software to investigate and recheck themes appearing in the research findings, it helped provide confidence for me as a researcher towards the issues and thoughts related to teaching, learning, pedagogical approaches, CCC(s), CSs and culture differences found in Thai EFL classrooms as well as when I referred

to them in the analysis and discussion chapter. The theoretical validity was applied here as issues, thoughts on teaching and learning as well as pedagogical approaches needed to be rechecked with theoretical frameworks and theories in the literature review of this study. Hence, the application of the Nvivo software has not only been viewed as a tool to support the rigour of the process to lessen bias while analysing the data; it can also be linked to the concept of reliability and validity in qualitative research which had been mentioned earlier.

CHAPTER 4 DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This chapter describes how the data was gathered by several research methods which were discussed in chapter 3 (Methodology). This data was systematically analysed by the researcher and through the use of the software called 'Nvivo 11'. The rationale underpinning the use of 'Nvivo 11' in analysing the main study data is in accordance with Richards (1999)'s statements. Nvivo helps handling rich data records and information. The qualitative rich data was derived from three main research methods of this study: teacher and student interviews, audio recordings of classroom teachings and classroom observations. Nvivo not only assisted me as a researcher to easily access and manage with rich and thick data swiftly and accurately, it also provides a range of tools for browsing, enriching texts and coding them noticeably or visually. With the use of Nvivo, patterns of data and ideas in linking themes were systematically managed and explored. As the main CS taxonomies for the analysis of these research methods, especially, the classroom observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings were based on Tarone's CS taxonomies, hence, the conceptual trees or nodes were produced and named after each title of taxonomy as illustrated in figure 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 consecutively.

The findings are discussed along with the research methods used. Additionally, reflections on the research methods are presented in the chapter. First, the findings of the interviews of the native English lecturers, Thai lecturers and the target Thai students studied in the Thai EFL classrooms are discussed consecutively. Second, the classroom observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings analysed through the Nvivo 11 software are discussed. The overall findings which were analysed against one another and seen as complimentary are then discussed in the following chapter. This provides clarity on the findings to be discussed as a whole in the following section prior various themes were identified for the study. The research questions of this study are readdressed in this chapter to recall the study contexts. The research questions are:

RQ1. What cross–cultural communication strategies are applied in the Thai EFL classroom?

RQ2. Why native English lecturers and Thai students do use cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom?

RQ3. What factors contribute to effective communication between native English lecturers and Thai students in the Thai EFL classroom?

These questions will highlight communication strategies, cross–cultural communication strategies, teaching practices between teachers and students, pedagogical approaches, the teaching and learning atmosphere of Thai EFL classrooms, issues related to effective and ineffective communication between native English lecturers and Thai students. Moreover, these will lead to cultural aspects of Thai students in their English learning as well as teacher beliefs and their cultural perspectives through communication which were significantly viewed in this study. The next section will discuss how the data was analysed prior to a discussion of the study findings.

4.1 Methods of data analysis

In order to answer the research questions, different methods were utilised to collect or gather data. These methods were interviews, classroom observations, and audio recordings of the classroom teachings. This section describes how the data produced by different methods was analysed. Data taken from the interviews of teachers and students was systematically analysed by the researcher using ‘manual coding’ followed by thematic analysis. As mentioned in chapter 3 (under the sub–topic 3.1.5 thematic analysis, page 134) thematic analysis is justified as being a type of analytic method which provides a theoretically–flexible and practical approach in order to analyse qualitative data. Also, it is seen as an instrument to employ across several methods. This analytic method allows data to be looked at closely by the researcher while coding interview transcripts. At the

same time, this method allows data to be seen as a whole after the same repeated codes were viewed to generate different themes. According to Saldana (2013, p.4), a code in qualitative data analysis is referred to:

> a researcher–generated construct that symbolises and thus attributes interpreted meaning to each individual datum for later purposes of pattern detection, categorization, theory building, and other analytic processes.

According to Brenner *et al*., 1985; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Silverman, 2000; Kvale, 1996 as cited in Richard (2014), there are several techniques used for qualitative data analysis. These techniques are comprised of frequency of themes counting, coding answers in order to decrease or shorten data into various parts, and grouping or clustering themes as to put into different categories. The analysis technique for the interview data this research selected was to code the interviews according to the various themes that emerged and developed from the pilot study. The emphasis of the analysis was not on the frequency counts but the meanings. In addition, new codes emerging from the interview transcript analysis were added.

Prior to going though various themes which were emerging from the interview transcript analysis, it was important to identify a clear list of topic areas for the interviews in relation to the literature review. The main topic areas for teacher interviews mainly comprised of cross-cultural communication strategies, communication strategies and other strategies applied in the Thai EFL classrooms. Other questions concerned with communication were: for example, the occurrence of miscommunication, communication difficulties, and the application of nonverbal communication by Thai students. As this study aimed to investigate effective CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogic strategies employed by native English lecturers and Thai lecturers while communicating with their students, many questions under these topics within the interview schedule were chosen. Furthermore, questions which were chosen to be in the teacher interview schedule related to culture and cultural dimensions were presented. For example, attitudes

toward Thai culture, cultural differences and cultural issues which were accounted for cultural dimensions or cultural values.

For Thai student interview questions, specific questions regarding CCC(s) and CS(s) were the main focus. Moreover, their understandings of these terms, their application of nonverbal communication, the occurrence of misunderstanding, the awareness of using CCC(s), CS(s) and difficulties in communicating or delivering messages included in the interview schedules were presented under the topic of CCC(s) and CS(s). Other questions related to subject or English course taken by Thai students, classroom atmosphere, students behaviours whilst communicating with lecturers were part of cultural values or dimensions and in the area of power distance or collectivistic culture reviewed in the literature review chapter.

Having perceived a list of topic areas for the interviews, it is important to explain how thematic analysis was conducted in this study. An iterative approach to analysis (Boyd, 2013) was adopted. After transcribing all interview transcripts, I immersed myself in the data by going through the whole data or each transcript line by line in order to develop initial codes which appeared interesting for the analysis. In other words, those initial codes provided meaningful descriptions to my study contexts. The next stage was searching for themes or patterns in the interview transcripts. Going through themes that emerged in the interview data, I then reviewed; defined and named themes. Therefore, this was the last stage of conducting thematic analysis.

4.2 Findings of the interviews

Before going through the findings from analysing teachers' and students' interviews, and classroom observation, it is crucial to justify a rationale for the analysis techniques this study employed. Having seen that the four sets of distinct analyses comprised teacher and student interviews, classroom observations and audio recordings of classroom teaching, the main reason of conducting these four

distinct analyses is that they complemented each other. These analyses cannot be separated from one another. As a whole these four sets of analysis techniques provided insights of cross-cultural communication incidents, issues, thoughts, the occurrence of CCC(s), CSs and pedagogic strategies employed by lecturers and Thai students in which these all incidents and instances were rechecked against the CSs taxonomies.

In this investigation, teachers and students' interviews were conducted in order to gain understanding of the themes that emerged from the analysis of qualitative data and gaps or problems raised in accordance with the literature review. The interviews also equipped me with a path to comprehend native English lecturers, Thai lecturers and Thai students' perspectives, attitudes, believes, practices and their relationship to their cultural background which must be taken into consideration. This analysis also permitted insights into teachers–students' cross–cultural communication strategies applied in the Thai EFL classroom.

The interview schedules were adapted and developed according to the pilot study's feedback. The key themes emerging from the interview questions of teachers in the main study were low English proficiency of Thai students, utilisation of repetition by lecturers and nonverbal communication applied by Thai students in the classroom. Furthermore, the key themes of the student interview questions from the main study were low English competency, a lack of competency with vocabulary, teacher characteristics or personalities (e.g. friendliness, helpful etc.), teacher characteristics in terms of pedagogic skills, confidence and lack of confidence, and asking friends for assistance. Several themes appeared at the time of interview data analysis which were related to cultural norms and values such as face saving issue, shyness, and peer pressure etc. As mentioned earlier, the teacher and student interviews were utilised to provide a comprehension of cross–cultural communication strategies or communication taxonomies applied in the classroom which were also observed in the qualitative data (observations and audio–recordings of classroom teachings). Therefore, this study not only demonstrates different communication taxonomies applied by both teachers and students in their classroom practices, but also gains

insights into effective communication taxonomies used in Thai teaching and learning contexts. Direct quotes are exhibited due to these following reasons; to illustrate themes emerging from the analysis, to provide readers a greater depth of comprehension as quotations can strengthen people's view and the depth of their feelings, to enable voice or to express people's beliefs (Coden and Sainsbury, 2006)

Initial findings from teacher and student interviews have been analysed initially in terms of the research questions. Subsequently, themes emerging from this qualitative data analysis are discussed. These findings will also be utilised to complement observations and audio recordings of classroom teaching data respectively and to pinpoint variables in Engestrøm's activity theory model.

4.2.1 Research question 1:

What cross–cultural communication strategies are applied in the Thai EFL classroom?

The data analysis will provide some comprehension of communication strategies which are applied by both native English lecturers and Thai students in the real Thai EFL classroom context. Prior to considering cross–cultural communication strategies that teachers and students employed in the Thai EFL classroom, it is important to perceive how much they realise about CCC(s) or CS according to their own understanding.

4.2.1.1 Meanings of cross–cultural communication strategies or communication strategies

Native English lecturer no.1 (NL1) comments that he has heard of this term in a TESOL international conference held in Thailand in 2006 or 2007. This conference introduced him to a new paradigm of 'not speaking English like a native English speaker'. Since then he has accepted this new paradigm into his teaching. Moreover, the idea of a 'native English speaker' has been called into a question regarding this teaching strategy.

> I realise in that TESOL conference that grammar really isn't the most important part of the communication because…just in China, there's going to be non–native English speakers more, non–native English speakers in China than the whole world combine of native English speakers, that's just China and so grammar is not much important, what's important is that people know how to communicate and so even if they use what's it called 'pigeon English'. If the other person can understand them, that's what's important and that what I took away from that and it changed my again, my paradigm of teaching English to the Thai students.

On the other hand, native English lecturer no.2 has never heard of the term CCCs before. In addition, he thinks that there should not be any strategies in the college where he is teaching at because he expects that all students who study here should have the same level of English.

> Well, for me. There should not be any strategies in NUIC because it's English college. Everybody who goes there should be speaking English. Everybody should be on the same level so for me, I don't adapt to that. I treat everybody the same whether you speak no English or you speak like me. If you can't cope it to that level, you should not be there. That's my goal, that's how I teach.

Regarding Thai lecturer no.3's perspectives, he has heard of CS. He thinks that it also has different meanings. Thus, he suggests that communication strategies in linguistic perspective can be for example, the use of repetition, and definition, to define or try to give definition to what the students are talking about. Other CS can be the use of aids or tools such as pictures or websites, YouTube or music videos.

> From what I have learned which is in accordance with 'linguistic perspective', there are various thoughts of communication strategies derived from different institutes. For example, it might be 'repetition'. We can repeat a previous sentence in English in order to get listeners to understand us. This can be one of the communication strategies. Another communication strategy might be: to define or to give definition of what we are talking about. If we use some technical terms or we would like to

> introduce new vocabulary of a lesson, we will try to define or give definition in order to know what those words mean. Other communication strategies might be; the use of teaching aids, for example, the use of pictures, websites (YouTube) even music video which will depend on contexts at that period of teaching.

In Thai lecturer no.4's opinion, communication strategies can refer to anything which assists both teacher and student to communicate better. To illustrate, the use of tone of voice, facial expression, nonverbal communication or word choices.

> …according to my understanding, the communication strategies can be kinds of techniques which help us understand each other better. Actually, I believe that we communicate not only to reply or respond to one another's messages but also try to understand the other party's messages meanings and what we think they can be referred to…

As a result, it can be seen that these native English lecturers and Thai lecturers have defined and demonstrated cross–cultural communication or communication strategies differently. Nevertheless, no matter what CCCs or CSs the teachers apply or use in the Thai EFL classroom, their aim or goal in utilising these strategies is to assist both teacher and student to communicate effectively, in other words, to get their messages across. Following students' knowledge and understanding of cross–cultural communication or communication strategies, it is found that the majority of Thai students (10 out of 16 students) have not heard about these terms. However, some students who claim to have heard of these terms cannot confirm their genuine understanding of either cross–cultural communication strategies or communication strategies. Moreover, a few students regard them as English learning skill techniques. Below is a representative quote taken from a Thai student about the meaning of CCCs or/and CSs (see more quotes in appendix D).

> Yes, I have heard about communication strategies. They comprise of various ways to improve English skills such as watching a lot of English films, listening to foreign music…(S3–of NEL1, a 2nd year student majoring in Civil Engineering)

4.2.1.2 Cross–cultural communication strategies or communication strategies employed by teachers and students in the EFL classroom.

4.2.1.2.1 Teachers' perspectives on CCC(s) and CS(s)

According to teacher interviews, it is found that teachers use a range of CCC strategies, some of which are specific to language teaching while others are more general pedagogical approaches that align well with the cultural context. The following quotes taken from the interviews of teachers can be viewed respectively;

Native English lecturer no. 1 (NL 1) mentions that cross–cultural communication strategies applied in class are speaking more slowly than natural English and using aids such as Google Translation, Thai dictionary on his smartphone and using synonyms.

> …the most obvious answer to that is 'they don't understand English' so I have to use other methods to be able to get them to try to understand what it is I am saying. Often, I speak very slowly, very slowly but I speak more slowly than natural English and I also use aid like 'Google Translate' or simple Thai dictionary on my Samsung Galaxy note 4…

Native English lecturer no.2 (NL 2) claims that cross–cultural communication strategies he uses in the classroom are speaking slower, repeating sentences, changing tones of voice, questions and lecture slides into much simpler or basic ones.

> I would go slower, probably speak slower and probably repeat myself more but that is when I got a class, when I know that's very poor…the

> class you are researching at the moment are the Thai base, they all talk Thai in their group, ok. Some of the answers are in Thai. It's very Thai base, so I have changed the questions on that, so I have changed my tone, my voice, make some changes, I do make some changes.

Thai lecturer no. 3 (NT 3) states that his communication strategies applied in class are: getting students to repeat sentences: 'repetition', simplifying sentences for students, making compliments to students, using teaching aids such as pictures from internet, YouTube music video etc.

> …" I cannot hear you, can you speak louder, please? " By saying this, I get them to repeat the sentence. In addition, I always encourage them not to worry about making mistakes when speaking. I also say, "just try to speak again, that's alright!" We will try to correct the sentence together."

Thai lecturer no. 4 (NT 4) mentions that her communication strategies applied in the EFL class are to assist her in maintaining conversations with the Thai students. These are getting students to repeat sentences slowly and utilising language switch from English to Thai. She also indicates that language switch will be the last choice of strategies used unless she can totally understand what the student says.

> The last thing I'll do if I cannot find out what they are talking about, I will speak to them in Thai; "what are you saying, please tell me in Thai?" My students will explain to me what they would like to say, after that we will adjust sentence's structure together in class and get them to memorise a correct version of that sentence."

According to Thai students' opinions, cross–cultural communication strategies applied by native English lecturer no.1 in the classroom are: speaking slowly, having clear pronunciation, using actions or body gestures and using aids.

> His skills in teaching are comprised of speaking slowly, having clear pronunciation, using actions as well as using aids. (S2, a 2nd year student majoring in Public Health)

As for the native English lecturer no. 2 (NL2), students indicate that cross–cultural communication strategies their teacher employed in class are: speaking slowly, using facial expression, displaying body gestures, making confirmation, pointing to objects, providing simple sentences and examples and using easy vocabulary can help them to understand English better. Below is a representative quote regarding the use of CCCs by NL2.

> …teacher shows a facial expression meaning 'OK' or 'passing' make me feel okay. Only facial expressions or actions from the teacher can give me confidence in answering questions… (J2, a first year student majoring in business management)

Thai students who have studied with the Thai lecturer no.3 (NT3) suggest that their teacher employs various communication strategies such as the use of jokes or sense of humour, the emphasis of keywords or vocabulary, providing examples and the use of repetition.

> …his teaching is fun and amicable. So we do not have to feel stressful about English principles and think too much about it. As a result, we can gain and absorb knowledge rather than just memorising it. Teacher's jokes are funny and they make us feel at ease… (M1, a 3rd year student majoring in Political Science)

As stated in student interviews analysis, it is mentioned that Thai lecturer no.4 (NT4) utilises several communication strategies which are likely to be part of pedagogical teaching strategies such as using aids (internet search engines, pictures, video clips), telling stories from teacher's experiences as to create a vivid picture in students' mind as well as enhance their comprehension.

> …Ways that the teacher tries to get the students to understand are; the use of aids or providing classroom discussion so that students can take part…Apart from that, there are the use of internet search engines or pictures displaying, watching video clips…(D1, a 4th year student majoring in Political Science)

4.2.1.2.2 Students' perspectives on CCC(s) or CS(s) implementation

Thai EFL students of native English lecturer no.1 and no.2 apply various cross–cultural communication strategies ranging from utilising simple words or synonyms, the online dictionary in their smartphones, the use of body gestures or actions, hand gestures, transliteration and asking friends for assistance. However two CCCs, the use of simple words or synonyms and the use of pictures on smartphone, are found as common strategies used across these two groups of Thai students when encountering miscommunication. A representative quote can be seen as follows;

> I maybe use simple words that are easy to understand or probably use body language, hand gestures and transliteration. (S3–of NEL1, a 2nd year student majoring in Civil Engineering)

Similarly, Thai students who study English with Thai lecturer no.3 (NT3) and no.4 (NT4) also apply communication strategies such as the use of simple or easy vocabulary, synonyms, non–linguistic means (body gestures or action, hand gestures, facial expression), circumlocution and language switch in order to get their lecturers to understand intended messages. Interestingly, language switch and asking friend for assistance are the most common communication strategies which are frequently employed by the students. Below are representative quotes that illustrate the use of 'language switch' and asking friend for assistance from Thai students respectively. (see more quotes in appendix D)

> Sometimes, I don't know how I am going to ask the teacher. I will speak Thai. If I know what to say in English, I will do. In case of asking a question to the teacher, she always prefers us to speak in Thai. After

> that, she will reply back in English then speak in Thai respectively (D2–of NT4, a 2nd student majoring in tourism)

> In case of encountering more difficulties in communication, I will call my friend to help me. They can help me fulfil the conversation and help reduce the time of responding. Apart from that, I can talk with my lecturer more as well as to get my friends to take part in this conversation. Hence, I will not feel so depressed about it because there is somebody helping me…(D1– of NT4, a 4th year student majoring in Political Science)

When Thai EFL students were asked about useful CCCs and CSs, each student regarded their own strategy as being distinctive. Apart from those CCCs and CSs from students' interviews mentioned earlier, other cross–cultural communication strategies such as the use of emotion, respect, humbleness, surrounding objects, pattern of talk and grammar memorisation as well as group discussion, have also been suggested.

> When communicating with the teacher, I will use a communication strategy which is called ' main keyword' so that the teacher can understand me more…another strategy is about using emotion as a compliment during the time of talks. We have to communicate our emotion. If we are not serious or not sincere with a person we are talking with, he or she might feel that we do not pay attention to him or her. That is, we do not have respect for the teacher. We need to be humble when approaching the teacher as well. (S2–of NEL1, a 2nd year student majoring in Public Health)

This quote points to the fact that Thai students also consider cultural communication aspects which are being humble, respective, meanwhile applying his own strategy in communicating with his native English lecturer.

4.2.1.3 Teachers' perspectives on the use of non–linguistic means or nonverbal communication in the Thai EFL classroom.

As the use of non–linguistic means or nonverbal communication are parts of cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom, it is necessary to realise how the Thai students apply them in order to deliver intended

thoughts to the lecturers. Following teacher interviews, it is found that Thai students apply various nonverbal communications ranging from body gestures, hand gestures, facial expressions, nodding face, expressing of emotions and remaining silent. However, native English lecturer no.1 (NL1) and no.2 (NL2) comment that students in their class rarely display nonverbal communications as a result of sudden 'give–up' or rejection. Some students are not even aware of or knowing how to use them.

> They usually do not use nonverbal communication; very very rare…so…they just give up quickly…I see very very little nonverbal communication. (Native English lecturer no.1)

> Oh, not really. They do, do a lot of hand gestures. If they cannot understand it in English, they just start talking Thai but obviously a clever Thai student then gives me the answer in English. They actually stretch their arms or they jump up and down, going, you know and then speak Thai. They would never speak English and use verbs, terrible! No emotion, no verbal…very rare…very rare. Probably a good student can use verbal. (Native English no.2 (NL2))

Furthermore, the native English lecturer no.2 (NL2) asserts that those who have low proficiency of English tend to apply more hand gestures while the good students will apply better nonverbal communication in responses such as smiling and looking as if they are prompted or willing to speak.

> They would stand up in class and use better body language, they smile and be more confident in general and they will be willing to speak with me as well. If I ask for a question, they would put their hands up, ok. A lot of Thais, the bad Thais will never put their hands up, they would just look away and don't seem bother, probably sleep. (Native English lecturer no.2 (NL2))

Native English lecturer no.2 (NL2) also suggests that the students whose English is not good will remain silent, meanwhile some will switch from English to Thai.

Some of those students also express their emotions and facial expressions such as looking scared or frightened without saying anything.

> They use things like just 'Mai–Kao–Jai', they switch to Thai. They go very quiet, they are not interested. They got scared, they look frightened. Yeah! They start saying 'Mai–Kao–Jai' and then obviously, the good student interrupts and starts talking to me in English. (Native English lecturer no.2 (NL2))

Following Thai lecturer no.3 (NT3), he mentions that nonverbal communication can reflect students' comprehension of what they have learned in the lesson.

> …in the lecture, they also nod their face. I can also check their understanding of the lesson by asking them a question. If they are able to answer the question, I can see that they truly understand what I was saying. (Thai lecturer no.3 (NT3))

Thai lecturer no.4 (NT4) comments that apart from the use of nonverbal communication, the students also use aids such as 'Google translation' while engaging in conversation with her.

> Yes, my students often exhibit actions. When they cannot explain something to me in English as a result of a lack of vocabulary, they try to express different actions to explain that; 'that's the kind of the car' then they act and use their hands to describe the car which has a high roof top etc…if they do not know what to say in English, they will use electronic tools such as 'Google translation'. (Thai lecturer no.4 (NT4))

4.2.2 Research question 2:

Why native English lecturers and Thai students do use cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom?

4.2.2.1 Reasons of utilising CCC(s) and CS(s) from teachers' perspectives

According to teachers' opinions, there are different reasons for applying CCC(s) or CS in the classroom. Firstly, the teacher finds that; Thai students do not like to talk or communicate in class which can derive from what is called 'classroom culture' as seen in some students' behaviour being jealous for others, and the value of being teacher's pet.

> Normally students are not very enthusiastic in letting a teacher know what they understand what he/she teaches in class. That comes from 'classroom culture'. I am not sure if there is such a thing in Western culture or not but in Thailand; some students do not like seeing others doing better than them, they get jealous for those who always raise their hands and always answer teacher's questions. They also dislike someone who likes to talk with their teacher all the time. Therefore, these good ones can be seen as teacher's pet in their perspective. (Thai lecturer no.4)

Secondly, experienced and less experienced native English lecturers and Thai lecturers have encountered difficulties trying to understand learners' messages or what they want to say in English. Hence, it is necessary for native English and Thai lecturers to get their students to talk by employing CCC(s) and CS. The native English lecturer no.1 who has been teaching in the University for nearly 10 years admits that;

> Yes, I have a lot of difficulties come from two things– they speak very softly and very quietly because they're shy to want to try and communicate with me. Er…the second part of that is that their accent in using English words is sometimes difficult for me to understand…when you use an alphabet that's not your native alphabet such as the English alphabet…they assign different sounds to the same letter so that makes that kind of difficult...

The third reason of applying CCC(s) or CS in the Thai EFL classroom is to help teachers maintain having conversation with their students.

> Another thing that I do is; if a student says something and I am not sure whether he or she really says. I will then try to say a sentence that I think

> they actually wanted to convey or say. Also, I will ask he or she about the sentence's meaning–'Do you mean this or that…?' After that, they will tell me the actual meaning of it. Having asked them some questions, it helps maintain a conversation with the students. (Thai lecturer no.3)

Another reason perceived, that the students do not want to communicate in class is also derived from Thai students' characteristics or features such as being quiet and not willing to participate or volunteer answering questions in class. As a consequence, Thai lecturer no.4 has to apply CS in order to get them to speak up.

> …I think it's a kind of personal thing that actually comes from students themselves. Some students just only sit still in class. They do not like to talk according to their nature; however, they can give correct answers every time I question them. These types of students just only nod their heads a little or they only sit and do not display any reactions because they do not want to be targeted from their friends. In other words, they don't want to get 'peer–pressure' in class. (Thai lecturer no.4)

Following native English lecturer no.2's perspective, the majority of Thai students in this class can only understand the lecturer or his talks about 40–50 per cent. Thus, this can be the third reason leading to cross–cultural communication strategies application, which will assist students to get their messages across.

> I would say that the vast majority of them will understand only 50 per cent, maybe 40 per cent. You get some very good Thai that can understand 80 per cent or 90 per cent but no one will understand 100 per cent here. I don't think you will never get that level, so I think some Thai 80 to 90 per cent. The vast majority 40 to 50 per cent and reflecting their grade whether they are going to get D or F because they're learning a second language. You're not going to get 'A' in a second language subject… (Native English lecturer no.2)

4.2.2.2 Reasons for applying CCC(s) and CS(s) according to Thai students' opinions

Some of the students who have suggested their cross–cultural communication strategies and communication strategies find that they have provided them with the opportunity to communicate with their lecturer better. Besides, those strategies

can convey their intended messages or thoughts to the teachers better than just using verbal communication. Below is a representative quote demonstrating opinions of Thai students regarding the use of CCCs and CSs (see another quote in appendix D of Chapter 4)

> As I said before that English is important. Therefore, when we have miscommunication by utilising English, we might also use body language. It helps us to have better understanding with each other. (J2– of native English lecturer no.2, a first year student majoring in business management)

4.2.3 Research question 3

What factors contribute to effective communication amongst native English lecturers, Thai lecturers and Thai students in the Thai EFL classroom?

> Prior to realising factors contributing to effective communication between native English lecturers and Thai students; it is significant to perceive factors or elements which can influence miscommunication in the Thai EFL classroom.

4.2.3.1 Thai students' opinions on factors influencing miscommunication

When querying the students about factors which can have an impact on miscommunication, the most common factor found in every group of students is a lack of competency with vocabulary. Students who study with native English lecturer no.2, and Thai lecturer no.3 and no.4 agree that teacher–student different attitudes and thoughts can also be another factor affecting miscommunication. Apart from that, students of native English lecturer no.1 and no.2 think that cultural differences can also occur and become part of this issue. Furthermore, Thai students studying with the two Thai lecturers admit that teacher–student background experiences can bring about misunderstanding of classroom

communication. A representative quote demonstrates below; (see more quotes regarding other factors influencing miscommunication in appendix D)

> Factors are: a lack of English competency as well as a lack of competency with vocFabulary. That's why we do not understand what the teacher is talking about in class… (M1– of Thai lecturer no.3, a 3rd year student majoring in Political Science)

Having referred to the meaning of effective communication which is 'to get message across', native English lecturers and Thai lecturers suggest different elements which can contribute to effective communication such as the use of teaching aids, and teachers' reactions and expressions especially facial expressions. More importantly, teacher characteristics: for example, being friendly, helpful and supportive and the use of pedagogical skills; using jokes or sense of humour, an attempt to approach students which are related to their teaching styles and personalities can create relaxed or amicable atmosphere which provide encouragement for learners to speak up willingly in the classroom. As a consequence, these elements have proved that they assist students to communicate effectively with confidence. A representative quote of the element leading to effective communication in Thai classroom from a teacher's opinion can be seen below; (See more quotes regarding teachers' pedagogical skills in appendix D)

> …another element comes from teacher's facial expression. For Thai students, this can be a major element which can encourage or discourage students' enthusiasm to engage in a conversation. If I make a frowning face or act as if I am about to tell them off, students are going to stop talking. If I smile and encourage them to continue speaking by saying 'can you repeat, please? What is it? Can you speak again, my son or daughter? They will not be afraid to talk. (Thai lecturer no.4)

4.2.4 Themes that emerged from student interviews

The themes identified from the interview analysis process also emerged during transcript analysis. These interview excerpts are presented here due to their pertinence to this investigation. As mentioned above, key themes from the interview of Thai students were identified as being low English competency, a lack of competency with vocabulary, teacher characteristics or personalities (e.g. friendliness, helpful etc.), teacher characteristics in terms of pedagogic skills, confidence and lack of confidence, and asking friends for assistance (see appendix E for a demonstration of themes that emerged from student interviews)

4.2.4.1 A lack of competency with vocabulary

A number of interviewees suggested that a lack of competency with vocabulary was one of the main issues when studying English with native English lecturers and Thai students.

> I have some problems in communicating; I sometimes use incorrect grammar structures, I do not know some vocabulary. Perhaps, the teacher gets confused because of this. After that, I have to switch to Thai in order to get him to understand it…(M3– of Thai lecturer no.3, a 3rd year student majoring in Law)

Additionally, this key theme also relates to other themes as part of theme groups, for example, challenge (English course is challenging for students), shyness, face issue, attitudes of learning English and a problem understanding teacher's English or British accent (see appendix E). Considering these theme groups, shyness and face issue are seen as common cultural values in Thai culture and society especially in the Thai classroom. Here, a student admitted that some of his friends are shy to speak up in the English class.

> …due to a large number of students in this class, I feel that the teacher just let anybody answer questions. Although no one respond to the question, he just let that go and move onto the next lesson…when some students are keen on a lesson, they will help each other giving answers. Whereas, some people who are shy just only sit, not saying or responding anything back to the teacher. (S2– of Native English lecturer no.1, a 2nd year student majoring in Public Health)

Regarding the losing face issue, a student mentioned that she is afraid of giving wrong answers and that prevents her or him from speaking up or expressing her or his ideas, and opinions in the class.

> …when responding to teacher's questions, I am only afraid of giving incorrect answers. If I give a wrong answer, I will not want to do it… (D1– of Thai lecturer no.4, a 4th year student majoring in Political Science)

Apart from that, a lack of competency with vocabulary relates to the challenge theme in which students think that English course is challenging for them. A student expressed attitude toward her current English course.

> English in my attitude is something challenging for me…I am not good at English but I will try my best for this subject. (J2– of native English lecturer no.2, a first year student majoring in Business Management)

Furthermore, it is found that Thai student attitudes of learning English are related to this theme–a lack of competency with vocabulary, making it a key theme. A student said that he has good attitudes toward the English subject and vocabulary.

> I like English, I like learning new or unknown vocabulary. (M4– of Thai lecturer no.3, a 3rd year student majoring in Law)

Some Thai students stated that they have encountered difficulty communicating with their lecturers. Due to a lack of competency with vocabulary, they find it even more difficult to think of what to say to their lecturers. For example, a representative statement is:

> I have got some problems. Despite the fact that I do not know a lot of vocabulary, I cannot think of how I am going to communicate with the teacher. As I don't know the vocabulary, I am afraid that he will not understand me…most of the time; it's proverbs that I still cannot quite understand them… (J3– of Native English lecturer no.2, a first year student majoring in International Business)

Other sub–themes related to this main theme are the various fears of Thai students–fear of speaking up in class and querying, fear of speaking with native English lecturers or foreigners, fear of not being accepted by teacher, fear of being unable to communicate, fear of providing incorrect answer and fear of using improper vocabulary or wrong grammar structures. Besides, silence in class, the negative learning characteristics of Thai students, pressure or tension when responding to teacher's questions, student–student helping hands and lack of stimulation in speaking up in class are also included in the sub–themes (see appendix E –a lack of competency with vocabulary)

4.2.4.2 Low English competency

A majority of the student interviewees accepted that they are not fluent in English. In other words, they have low English proficiency. To demonstrate, a Thai student expressed an opinion toward her English listening skills, speaking skills and the use of grammar.

> I have got some problems. Personally, I have a problem listening to his talks, I don't really get it. Now I can understand him okay though I cannot speak fluent English. My English grammar is not accurate…it is like I cannot put words in order or make a correct sentence. (J1– of Native English lecturer no.2 a first year student majoring in International Business)

Other themes in theme groups relate to this key theme are challenge, shyness, face issue, attitudes of learning English, and a problem understanding English or British accent. Similarly, this key theme can also relate to different types of Thai student fears (see appendix E – low English competency), which are categorised into sub–themes. Moreover, silence in classroom, student motivation, the negative learning characteristics of Thai students, their enthusiasm in learning English, Thai teaching–learning system and lack of stimulation in speaking up in the classroom also link with this main theme.

Moreover, a problem understanding or following a teacher's English or British accent especially for those who study with native English lecturers arose from Thai teaching–learning system in their secondary school that has a great impact for students' proficiency of studying English. Interestingly, this comment has brought a further remark of Thai educational system.

> A problem in communicating with the English lecturer mostly comes from English accent. That's because we did not study with foreign or native English lecturers a lot of time when we were in primary school. We only studied with them perhaps 2 hours a week. English pronunciation we learned from Thai lecturers was also different from native English lecturer. Hence, we are unsure for some reasons if words pronounced by our native English lecturer can be the same as what we learned before…(S1– of Native English lecturer no.1, a 2nd year student majoring in Public Health)

As stated above, some Thai students are shy and afraid of expressing their opinions, thoughts or ideas in class. The reason for this is a result of a lack of competency with vocabulary. Therefore, Thai students remain quiet in the Thai EFL classroom is viewed as a consequence of their low proficiency of English.

> I feel like my speaking skill is poor. I was afraid that if I asked him something, he would not understand me. (J1– of Native English lecturer no.1, a first year student majoring in International Business)

The interview question on Thai students suggesting useful cross–cultural communication strategies or communication strategies Thai learners apply when communicating with their native English lecturers and/ or Thai lecturers found that those CCC(s) or CS mentioned by the interviewees can be connected to this main theme–'low English competency' (see appendix G). To illustrate, these CCC(s) and CS which are in the theme groups are; the use of nonverbal communication, synonyms, utilisation of pictures, language switch, the use of online dictionary and asking friends for assistance.

Having referred by a British native English lecturer, low English proficiency students tend to apply a lot of nonverbal communications; particularly hand gestures and facial expressions. Here, a Thai student studying with this teacher explained his useful cross–cultural communication strategies.

> …I will use vocabulary which has similar meanings or else I just add hand gestures as to get my lecturer to understand me. (J3– of Native English lecturer no.2, a first year student majoring in International Business)

In the Thai EFL classroom, some Thai students often switch from English to Thai when having difficulty in communicating with teachers or when they could not find a way to deliver intended messages. A quote from this student demonstrated that language switch became a part of his or her easy access communication strategies.

> …If the teacher is Thai, I will use Thai as my main language because we both are Thai. So speaking Thai is the easiest way that we can understand each other. (D3– of Thai lecturer no.4, a 4th year student majoring in Political Science)

4.2.4.3 Teacher characteristics or personalities

In order to make the students feel at ease and engaged more in learning English, teacher characteristics or personalities such as being friendly, helpful and

approachable not only relate to the teaching style of an individual teacher, but can also bring about pleasant classroom atmosphere, positive attitude, enthusiasm and motivation for Thai learners in studying English (see appendix E).

> Yes, I feel that the teacher is friendly. In consequence of this, we have more confidence in responding to his questions instead of only sitting and listening to lecturers…He makes us to feel better…Our teacher talks and plays with us so it seems like we feel relaxed while studying. (M1– of Thai lecturer no.3, a 3rd year student majoring in Political Science)

> …my teacher seems friendly and he doesn't give any pressure to students. He is not so strict in class and I do not have any feelings against him. I actually like him. (S3– of Native English lecturer no.1, a 2nd year student majoring in civil engineering)

4.2.4.4 Teacher characteristics (pedagogical skills)

In relation to this key theme, other themes viewed as parts of the theme group and sub–theme respectively are utilisation of jokes, the use of aids, and the use of examples. Moreover, the use of sense of humour, utilisation of simple vocabulary and emphasis on keywords, speaking slowly by the teacher and approaching students (as to boost confidence) are also included (see appendix E) The majority of the interviewees explained that teachers' sense of humour and the use of jokes in the class help students to be able to memorise vocabulary easily as well as reduce tension or stress while studying English.

> …his teaching is fun and amicable. So we do not have to feel stressful about English principles and think too much about it. As a result, we can gain absorb knowledge rather than just memorising it. Teacher's jokes are funny and they make us feel at ease… (M1– of Thai lecturer no.3, a 3rd year student majoring in Political Science)

With the use of different types of aids such as pictures taken from websites, music videos or English learning clip videos, story–telling etc. Thai students admitted

that those aids used in the classroom by their lecturers can assist them to see a clearer picture of what the teachers were going to say. At the same time, these tools can help the learners to have the same understanding as their lecturers. In other words, the students can be 'on the same page' with their lecturers.

> …experiences from story–telling can get us to understand her messages a lot better, it is like we have inner sense that we would like to gain the same experiences. Today, we learn about a country– 'Peru'. The teacher has never been there but she talks like she has an experience visiting that country; she shows pictures, video clips which make us feel like we would like to touch that kind of atmosphere. (D4– of Thai lecturer no.4, a 2nd year student majoring in Tourism)

4.2.4.5 Confidence and a lack of confidence

Confidence and a lack of confidence are considered to be one of the main issues that Thai students have encountered during the time of speaking up. The interviewees also agreed that their teachers can play a significant role in providing more confidence to their students.

> …If the teacher approaches me more…I think I will have more confidence…If the teacher walks in class, it is mandatory that we have to speak up. If the teacher just stays at her desk, I feel that someone will answer that question instead of me. (D1– of Thai lecturer no.4, a 4th year student majoring in Political Science)

Apart from this, peer pressure, shyness, face issue and silence in classroom can be linked to the main theme (see appendix E). Many Thai students claimed that peer pressure in the Thai EFL classroom can be one of the factors preventing students from speaking up.

> …I hardly talk with my teacher. It seems like this class is a big class. To compare to other classes, I will answer questions or respond to my teacher if the class is small. (D1– of Thai lecturer no.4, a 4th year student majoring in Political Science)

4.2.4.6 Asking friends for assistance

This main theme is one of the cross–cultural communication strategies which many Thai students chose to apply if they struggle communicating with their lecturer.

> Personally, asking friends give me more confidence. In my opinion, my friends are able to communicate or talk with the lecturer better than me. So I need their advice. (J1– of Native English lecturer no.2, a first year student majoring in International Business)

Furthermore, this key theme still connects to various themes from the theme group; shyness, face issue, a problem understanding English or British accent of native English lecturers. Last but not least, this main theme can also link with other sub–themes especially students' fears (see appendix E – asking friends for assistance).

4.2.5 Themes that emerged from teacher interviews

As mentioned at the beginning that there are different themes arising from the analysis process. To illustrate, those key themes are: low English proficiency of Thai students, utilisation of repetition by lecturers and nonverbal communication applied by Thai students. Likewise the main theme identified from the interview of Thai students, the majority of native English lecturers and Thai lecturers agreed that the students have encountered a problem of low English proficiency. This can be considered as a major issue of learning English in the Thai EFL classroom (see appendix F for a demonstration of themes that emerged from teacher interviews).

4.2.5.1 Low English proficiency

Here, native English lecturer no.2 who had only one year experience teaching Thai students in this university remarked on their English proficiency.

> Thai students are very poor generally in English…their listening is also very poor and they seem to really care about speaking…as for writing and listening and reading to some extent, Thai students are very very poor in relation to international students.

However, the female Thai lecturer no.4 does not agree on the fact that Thai students, in general, are perceived as having low English proficiency.

> I do not agree if someone says that Thai students' English proficiency is very poor because there are groups of students who are good at English. Though, some students are very poor in their English proficiency, you cannot really tell because it can vary…

4.2.5.2 Nonverbal communication

When asking about nonverbal communication or the non–linguistic means that Thai students applied in the Thai EFL classroom, the majority of the interviewees commentated that the students applied cross–cultural communication strategies and communication strategies variously. For examples, eye contact, blinking of eyes, facial expressions, hand gestures and body language (see section 4.2.1.2.2 for previous quotes regarding the use of nonverbal communication by Thai students).

4.2.5.3 The use of repetition

Getting students to repeat sentences and the use by lecturers of sentence repetition emerged as the basic CCCs and CSs that most of native English lecturers and Thai lecturers applied in order to maintain a conversation with his or her students. Having repeated sentences, it helps prevent the learners from losing confidence in

speaking up. According to native English lecturer no.1's interview, it is confirmed that repetition has been applied.

> I get them to speak slower and I get them to use different words, so if they're saying something to me and I don't understand what it is. I get them to say it again…

Having perceived various themes that emerged from teacher and student interviews, it can be acknowledged that data in thematic analysis was treated from an interpretive or realist perspective. In other words, by using the thematic analysis, detailed, rich and complex understandings of the main study data was found (see chapter 4, section 4.2.4 and section 4.2.5). Besides, the thematic analysis helped inform meanings and experiences in the real Thai EFL classroom settings as well as illustrating participants' reality in terms of a lack of competency with vocabulary, low English competency of Thai students, teacher characteristics or personalities, teacher characteristics (pedagogical skills), confidence and a lack of confidence, the use of nonverbal communication applied by students and the application of repetition by lecturers.

Perceiving key themes that occurred after the distinct four sets of data was analysed, thematic analysis illuminated some important key themes and sub-themes stated earlier. These key themes and sub-themes had indicated various factors supporting the application of CS taxonomies by Thai students (see appendix E). To illustrate, these six factors are: fear of speaking up in class and querying, fear of speaking with native English lecturers, fear of not being accepted by lecturers, fear of being unable to communicate, fear of providing incorrect answers, fear of using improper vocab and wrong grammar structures. Because of these factors, the application of CS taxonomies was evidenced by various instances manifested in a below table (table 4.1). Moreover, by viewing key themes that emerged from teacher interviews, it was found that nonverbal communication or mime was utilised by Thai students as some instances shown in table 4.1. The lecturers' strategies in maintaining conversation with students

which appeared as part of sub-themes in appendix F were not found in Dörnyei and Scott's composite table shown below.

4.3 Findings from classroom observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings

In this section, the emphasis is on classroom observation and video recording findings on the use of CCCs and CSs. This section not only examines CCCs and CSs applied by native English lecturers, Thai lecturers and Thai students in the EFL classroom, but it also seeks to identify cultural issues occurring during their communication and interactions, Thai student cultural aspects or features effecting their communication, pedagogical approaches and strategies as well as other aspects related to CCCs and CSs.

As mentioned in the literature review about 'inventory of strategic language devices with descriptions' based on Dörnyei and Scott (1997), and indications whether they were included in any other taxonomies (T=Tarone,1977; F&K=Fæerch and Kasper,1983b; B=Bialystok,1983; P=Paribakht,1985; W=Willems,1987; N=Nijimegen Group), the table below manifests a contribution to knowledge of CS(s) and CCC(s) applied by participants (lecturers and Thai students) of this study;

Table 4.1 : A contribution to knowledge of CS(s) and CCC(s) applied by participants (lecturers and Thai students) of this study adapted from Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) 'inventory of strategic language devices with descriptions', p.188-192.

Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
1. Message abandonment	Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	Student®: Same cultural (He told his friend to say this phrase). Student: China likes same Thai cultural… [*grammatical problem] Lecturer2: Anything else? Student: No….no…no.	T, F & K ,W
2. Message reduction (topic avoidance)	Reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language wise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources.	Lecturer2: (The teacher called another student). What do you think of the question? Student(B): I chose China. Lecturer2: Why? Student(B): Near Thailand and (Pause)…a…(Pause) easy to transportation and communication. Lecturer2: Why? Um. Student(B): Because (SP) Thailand export… (Soong-Ox-Kao-Pao-Waa?- Did we export rice? (He consulted his friend).	T, F& K, W
3. Message replacement	Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it.	No examples found in the main study data.	F&K, W

Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
4. Circumlocution (paraphrase)	Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action.	Lecturer1: Now, something you may hear. Someone say…I'll come around and have a look at it. Please leave a message and I'll get back to you as soon as I can. "It's a 10 minute walk to the shop". These are things you might hear on the phone. If you call someone and you hear "please leave a message and I'll get back to you as soon as I can!" What is that? What is that? *Note: The lecturer illustrates the target object: the voice mail or the answering machine.	T, F&K, W, P; B: 'description'; N:appr. 'analytic strategies'
5. Approximation	Using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure.	Lecturer1: It's ground! (High tone of voice). So lord, lord is someone who rules over land. A lord, my lord, my lady. We all know lady Gaga! S(w/c): (Small laugh) Lecturer1: So I want to know who is lord Gaga. Lady and lord Gaga. I've seen Lady Gaga! A lord is someone who seizes over things. They are the lord like loyalty so a landlord is someone who seizes over the land. They could be call a manager –a landlord or a manager. Note: The lecturer uses the word 'lady' to elicit the meaning of 'lord'.	T, W; B and P; 'semantic contiguity'; F&K: 'generalization'; N: appr.' Holistic str.'

Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
6. Use of all purpose words	Extending a general, 'empty' lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking	No examples found in the main study data.	W: ; 'smurfing'
7. Word coinage	Creating a non–existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word.	No examples found in the main study data.	T,F&K,B,W;N: appr. 'morphological creativity'
8. Restructuring	Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan.	Lecturer2: Anything else? 55 seconds. 30 seconds singing. Student: Ah…China have many population and people in China like….	F & K; W: under 'self–repair'
9. Literal translation (transfer)	Translating literally and lexically from L1/L3 to L2.	Lecturer2: Here,Moscow.Very famous. Good, good, good. Student2: (Turned to consult/ talk to a friend in Thai). Lecturer2: Why? Why? Student®: ทำไม...ไม่เจริญ poor หรอ (Tam-Mai, Mai Cha-Roen, Ror? – Why, is it a poor or is it a developing country?)	T,W,N; F&K: under 'interlingual transfer'; P and B; 'transliteration'
10. Foreignizing	Using a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/ or morphology.	No examples found in the main study data.	B,W; F&K: under 'interlingual transfer'; N: under 'transfer'

Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
11. Code switching (language switch)	Including L1/L3 words with L1/ L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns.	Using Thaiword: *'Ting-Tong'* for 'crazy' Lecturer1 : Your teacher is "*Ting-Tong*" Students : (Big laughs from students)	T,F&K, B,W;WN: under 'transfer'
12. Use of similar–sounding words	Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non–existing which sounds more or less like the target item.	No examples found in the main study data.	
13. Mumbling	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about.	Lecturer1 : Turned on the extract for students to practise. I can't hear you! (The teacher put his hand close to his ear) Students : (Some students were murmuring with the answer)	
14. Omission	Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as it had been said.	Student3: I think, German is better than Brazil. Lecturer2: OK, why? Student3: Because Germany is in the middle and it has a…..(she could not finish her sentences).	
15. Retrieval	In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item saying a series of imcomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form.	No examples found in the main study data.	F&K

Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
16. Self–repair	Making self–initiated corrections in one's own speech.	Lecturer4: Why do you have to visit the temple: you said from 9 pm to 11 pm? ที่วัดมีอะไร (What can you do there at that time in the temple?) Student(80): (Laughed) Student(w/c): 9-11 am (Students from the group said together)	
16. b. Other repair	Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech.	Student : Parking cars. Lecturer1: To park a car.	
17. Self–rephrasing	Repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase.	Lecturer3: OK, so how much is that? Student®: 200 Lecturer3: 200 dollars. Yes. Got dollars, not Thai Baht, right? Can you calculate into the Thai Baht? Thai currency, how much is it in Thai baht? Student®: สี่พันห้า (Sii-Phan-Haa : 4,500). Note: The lecturer makes a self-rephrasing to give a hint to the student about the currency.	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)
18. Over explicitiness (waffling)	Using more words to achieve a particular communicative goal than what is considered normal in similar L1 situation	(This Cs was not included in Dörnyei & Scott's, 1995a, 1995b, taxonomy)	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)

Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
19. Mime (nonlinguistic/ paralinguistic strategies)	Describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration.	A lecturer demonstrates facial expressions: Lecturer1: The favourite day of the week, Monday (made disappointed face and opened the mouth – turned his mouth awkwardly).	T, F&K, B, P, W;N: under either 'analytic' or 'holistic strategies'
20. Use of fillers	Using gambits to fill pauses, to stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty.	Student(B): By อะไรวะ (By Arai-Waa? - By what?) China has many Chinese people…um…(Pause) Because when Thai people go to China easily to communication Thai people (Laughed). Lecturer: 7 minutes	
21. a. Self–repetition	Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said.	Lecturer2: You want to go together? Anyone wants to go to Russia? Student3: I think…I think I want to go to. Lecturer2: Interesting! (Raised up his tone of voice).	(Tarone & Yule, 1987)
21 b. Other repetition	Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time.	Lecturer2: Hopefully not. Are you ready now group1? Yeah…you're ready ….go! Student(C): ไม่ใช่ teacher (Mai-Chai teacher)… group 4 Lecturer2: Yes, group 4 go first. Student(D): Go first ไง (Go first !) Note: a student repeats the word 'go first' before starting their presentation in classroom.	

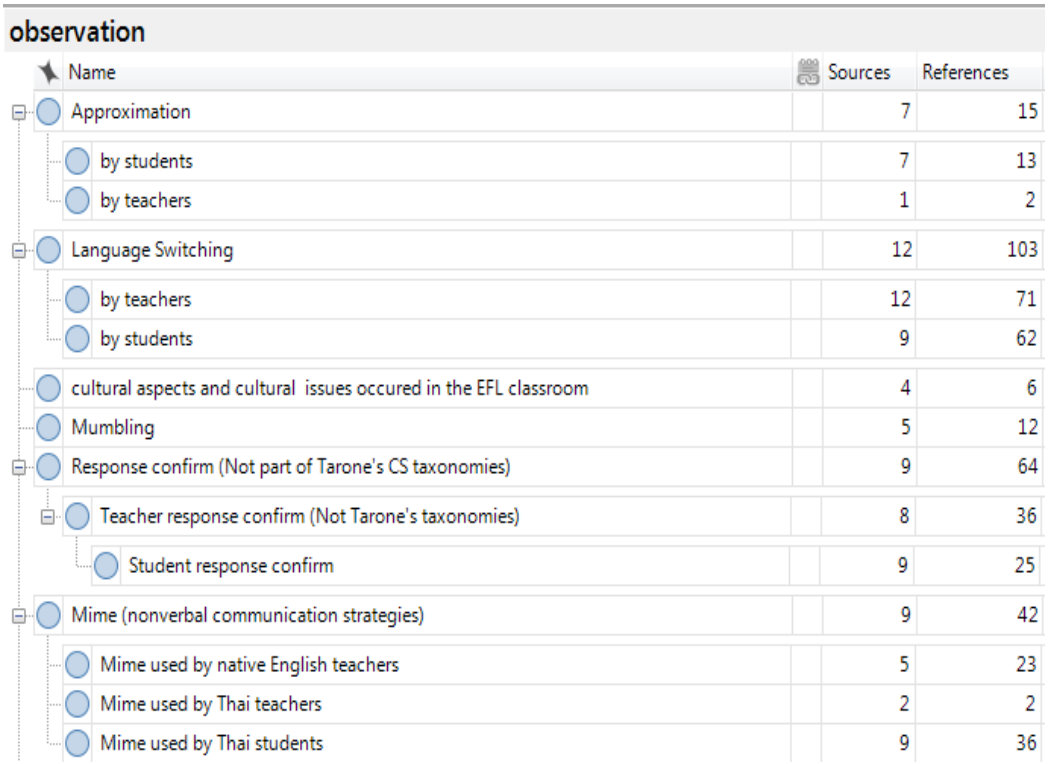
Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
22. Feigning understanding	Making an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand.	No examples found in the main study data.	
23. Verbal strategy markers	Using verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code.	No examples found in the main study data.	
24. a. Direct appeal for help	Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge.	No examples found in the main study data.	T, F&K, W
24 b. Indirect appeal for help	Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally	Lecturer2: Are you presenting this one? Student(W): *Smiled and looked down*. Lecturer2: You two have to stand up with me for 15 minutes and speak English. You understand เข้าใจ (Kao-Jai)? Student(W): (Nodded his head).	
25. Asking for repetition	Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding	Lecturer3: Two days, one night. That's enough for you, maybe! OK! Let me try, maybe one or two more examples. How about (teacher called another student), please? Here we go, so what did you decide to do? Student(u): (Spoke very softly). Lecturer3: *Again, please.* Student(u): I'd like to go drinking.	

Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
26. Asking for clarification	Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure.	Student®: What did you decide to do ? Student1: Smoke weed. Lecturer3: Again? I'd like to… Student1: I'd like to smoke weed, you know? Lecturer3: *What does it mean?* (*Probably because of student's English accent, the teacher could not understand what the student was trying to say). Student1: Ma….Marijuana!.	W
27. Asking for confirmation	Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly	Lecturer3: Everyday. When is the best time for you to go swimming? Student(t): เวลา…Ah…5 o'clock. Lecturer3: *5 o'clock in the morning, right?* Student(t): Yeah! Ha…ha..ha..(LOL).	W
28. Guessing	Guessing is similar to a confirmation request but the latter implies a greater degree of certainty regarding the key word, whereas guessing involves real indecision.	No examples found in the main study data.	
29. Expressing non–understanding	Expressing that one did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally	Lecturer2: Are you ready? (The teacher called one of the students by his nickname). Student1: (Ignored the teacher and move his chair towards his friend).	

Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
30. Interpretive summary	Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that the speaker has understood correctly.	Lecturer3: For how many people, ok? So are you going alone or ? Are you going alone to Paris? Are you going alone? Student1: Ah….with…with my friend. Lecturer3: One friend or more than one friend?	W
31. Comprehension check	Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you.	Lecturer2: However, the answer – I would go for the China because of the culture,ok! Student®: Yeah! (The same student replied/ responded back to the teacher). Lecturer2: You gonna make sure, you talk about the culture, ok! Student®: Yeah! (The same student answered).	W
32. Own–accuracy check	Checking that what you said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation.	Lecturer1: That's conversation 10. Still on conversation 9. There was a question to keep the conversation going. What was the conversation question? Student: "How …how about you?"	
33. a. Response repeat	Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form (after an other–repair)	No examples found in the main study data.	
33. b. Response repair	Providing other–initiated self–repair	No examples found in the main study data.	
33. c. Response rephrase	Rephrasing the trigger	No examples found in the main study data.	

Strategy	Description	Example	Other Taxonomies
33 d. Response expand	Putting the problem word/issue into a larger context.	No examples found in the main study data.	
33 e. Response confirm	Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested.	Lecturer2 **:** Brazil has the World Cup and the Olympic. Why is that good for Brazil? Why? (SP). Anyone watch football? Anyone like football? You watch the World Cup in Brazil? Student**:** Yeah…Yeah.	
33 f. Response Reject	Rejecting what the interlocutor has said or suggested without offering an alternative solution.	Lecturer1: Another volunteer. If it isn't 12 o'clock already, is it? Student(w/c): (Laughed). Lecturer1: Yes, it's twelve o'clock. Student3: No..	

These classroom observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings were analysed through the use of a qualitative software programme called Nvivo11, the findings were based on Tarone's CS taxonomies which was selected to be the main CS taxonomies for the analysis of these research methods.



observation

Name	Sources	References
Approximation	7	15
by students	7	13
by teachers	1	2
Language Switching	12	103
by teachers	12	71
by students	9	62
cultural aspects and cultural issues occured in the EFL classroom	4	6
Mumbling	5	12
Response confirm (Not part of Tarone's CS taxonomies)	9	64
Teacher response confirm (Not Tarone's taxonomies)	8	36
Student response confirm	9	25
Mime (nonverbal communication strategies)	9	42
Mime used by native English teachers	5	23
Mime used by Thai teachers	2	2
Mime used by Thai students	9	36

Figure 4.1 : The first overview coding of Tarone's CS taxonomies taken from the Nvivo11 software analysis.

4.3.1 The use of Tarone's CS taxonomies by native English lecturers and Thai lecturers in their classroom teachings

Teachers' use of 'language switch'

From the first three Tarone's CS taxonomies seen in this figure taken from the Nvivo programme, the taxonomies are the use of 'approximation', the use of 'language switch', and the use of 'mime'. Compared to the other two strategies, it

seems like ‘language switch’ was used more frequently by all four lecturers, especially the female Thai teacher (NT4) who mostly switched from English to Thai and Thai to English in all of her classes. In order to specify this in more detail, a number of instances will be considered. There were 6 instances which emerged in NL1 lessons, 4 instances from NL2, 9 instances from NT3, and 52 instances of language switch use found in NT4 lessons. In comparison, the use of ‘approximation’ was less applied amongst the three strategies. To illustrate, there are some examples of ‘language switch’ strategy utilised by the native English lecturers and Thai lecturers as follows;

Excerpt 1 : Illustration of ‘language switch’ of the native English lecturer (NL1) in lesson 3.

Speaker	**Transcribed exchanges**
T1:	B, sorry it’s 36. If it’s gone down she says: sorry it’s 36 (lower his voice down). Going up–36 (raised his voice up). 36 (made neutral voice), 36 (lower his voice). See, this what I like …คาค่าค้าค๊าค๋า(Ahh!). Mai Kao Jai (I don’t understand–the meaning in Thai).
S(w/c):	(Some students laughed)
T1:	It’s hard to hear the tone so you have to pay attention. Listen carefully.

In this passage, the American lecturer switched from English to Thai when he started talking about Thai tonal sounds with his students. Shortly after, he made a Thai statement by saying ‘Mai Kao Jai’ which means ‘I don’t understand’ to make an emphasis of the Thai language element that he could not really comprehend. Immediately, students in the whole class started laughing to express their response confirm of the teacher’s statement or his talk. Here, the American lecturer switched to Thai language in order to illustrate and to ensure the students

understood what he talked about. At the same time, he added a little sense of humour while speaking in Thai as to build the pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.

Excerpt 2 : Illustration of 'language switch' of the less experienced native English lecturer (NL2) in lesson 3.

Minutes 4.50

Incident: Teacher reminded students about the time they had left so that the students in each group could hurry up and try to wrap up their discussion before the presentation.

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T2:	Three minutes!
S(L):	โอ้ย! Joe เร็วจังเล่า (Aoy! Joe, Rew–Juang–Lao: Oh man! How come the time is so quick, Joe?) (Shouted with dissatisfied voice).
S(w/c):	Ha…ha…ha (Students laughed).
S®:	อาจารย์ตกใจ (AjarnTok–Jai : Teacher was startled).
T2:	ตกใจ**….**จริงๆ (Tok–Jai–Jingjing! : I was startled, indeed).

Excerpt 2 exemplifies the use of 'language switch' during an unexpected incident. In this passage, the less experienced British lecturer applied 'language switch' strategy after a student S(L) shouted at him in a dissatisfied manner while he was doing group work. S(L) felt frustrated getting the work done within limited time. It is seen that the British lecturer switched from English to Thai immediately after S® started talking to him in Thai. Normally, the majority of the Thai students tend not to express their feeling or emotion explicitly or directly to their lecturers. At this point, the native English teacher emphasised and confirmed his surprised or

startled feeling toward what S(L) said to him as he probably did not expect this to happen despite the fact that the British lecturer hardly switched from English to Thai during his teachings.

Excerpt 3 : Illustration of 'language switch' of the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in lesson 2.

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T3:	For example, if you go to a movie, you go to the movies, right? You're students. You can have a discount ticket, maybe 20 baht. So what does that mean by a discount?
S(w/c):	(Remained quiet).
T3:	For example, if you go to a movie, you go to the movies, right! You're student. You can have a discount ticket, maybe 20 baht. So what does that mean by a discount?
S(w/c):	(Student remained quiet)….(SP). *(After the second time of explaining about the meaning of the word 'discount', nobody responded back to the teacher. It was probably they did not really comprehend the meaning of it).
T3:	ส่วน ...
S®:	ส่วนลด
T3:	Exactly, go to the movie. Go to the museum– some places, ok.

Excerpt 3 exemplifies the use of 'language switch' applied by the male Thai lecturer during the time the students did not understand what he was describing or talking about. After the explanation by the teacher, he switched from English to Thai by giving a hint of a Thai word to the students. Suddenly, one of the students responded back to him by correcting the rest of that vocabulary in Thai. In this

passage, it is viewed that the Thai lecturer used pedagogical strategies which were ‘eliciting’ and ‘repeating’. He firstly repeated different sentences in English as a way to elicit an answer from the students. As he realised that students were unable to give an answer after the second explanations due to a lack of English competency, he then switched to Thai and applied this as the lattermost strategy.

Excerpt 4 : Illustration of ‘language switch’ of the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in lesson 3

Minute 20.12

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T4:	What can we do in Jasper national park?
S(43):	Playing golf (A male student replied).
T4:	Yes, of course. We can play golf. Play golf–อยากจะเล่น Golf–Mike ด้วยแล้วไงต่อ (You can play “Golf–Mike” … what are other activities?). (She made a joke of the word “play Golf–Mike” because “Golf–Mike” is a duo band in Thailand).
S(44):	Go hiking. (One female student answered).
T4:	Very good. Go hiking. Good หรือสนใจทำอะไรอีกก็ได้ทำอะไรอีกนะ (or any interests that they can do?)
T4:	Boating หรือไปพายเรือก็ได้นะคะ....(Or you can go boat salling). Whatcan we do in Calgary?
S®:	Shopping (Two students answered).

Excerpt 4 exemplifies the use of ‘language switch’ between the female Thai lecturer (NT4) and her students in ‘English Conversation’ class. Amongst the four lecturers, NT4 was the one who spoke Thai and English interchangeably in all of

her classes. In this passage, the lecturer switched from English to Thai after she mentioned about playing golf after S (43) had replied to her a question. The reason for using language switch at that time was to make a little joke in her talk as she wanted the students to feel at ease while learning English.

4.3.1.1 Teachers' use of 'mime'

In figure 4.1, the use of 'mime' was less frequently applied compared to the use of 'language switch'.However, the use of mime which includes body gestures, hand gestures, actions, facial expression etc. was largely applied by the native English lecturers more than the Thai teachers. The American lecturer (NT1) used a variety of mimes which also depend on the lessons and their contexts, such as clapping hands, pointing to different directions, pointing towards the students, performing some actions, making a funny facial expression, making a disappointed facial expression, raising hands, and lifting his body up and down. In addition, 18 instances of the strategy were identified. Moreover, 12 instances were found by Nvivo analysis showing that NT1 frequently applied hand gestures in his teachings. However, body gestures and facial expressions were rarely applied by NT2 as only 2 instances were found in his classroom teachings. On the other hand, the British lecturer (NT2) occasionally performed some gestures in his classroom teachings. For example, he would point to the students, made a disappointed facial expression, smile to his students, and cover his face with his hands as if he felt disappointed. Only 3 instances of hand gestures were identified. Also, it was noticed that NT2 seldom performed facial expressions in the classrooms because only 2 instances emerged. Below are some examples of 'mime' performed by NT1 and NT2 in different contexts.

Excerpt 5 : Illustration of ‘mime’ of the American lecturer (NT1) in lesson 3

Speaker	Transcribed exchange
T1:	I know they speak very quickly. Did you get which picture she is looking at?
S(w/c):	Remained quiet.
T1:	Picture 1, 2 or 3. Who said one, two, who said picture three (raised his hand while asking/ talking with the students).
S1:	(Raised her hand)

Excerpt 5 exemplifies the use of ‘mime’ by the American lecturer (NT1) in ‘English for Communicative Purposes’ class. In this passage, after (NT1) initiated a question, the whole class remained quiet. None of the students responded to this question. Later on, the teacher had simplified the question and raised his hand while talking to his students to reassure he received correct response from the students.

Excerpt 6 : Illustration of ‘mime’ of the British lecturer (NL2) in lesson 3

Minute 35.34

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
S(Z):	I think the advantage….value of money low down. Include of quality อ๋อ(oh!) Quality of product include. I think it’s advantage to business. No job no work…have many treat at the more and the more no people แล้วก็ (and then). Such as Thai (SP) Thai (SP) Thailand have problem of the business is Tom Yum Kung, hamburger. Thank you.
T2:	Oh dear! (Covered his face with hands and smiled).
S(Z):	1 นาทีคะ (Neung–Naa–Tee–Kaa: only one minute).

Excerpt 6 exemplifies the use of ‘mime’ by the British lecturer (NT2) in the ‘Introduction to Business’ class. It is seen that the British lecturer covered his face with hands after S(Z) finished her presentation. This shows that the teacher was discontented with the student’s talk. He expected each student to be able to give a presentation of more than one minute, however S(Z) could only talk for one minute. As this presentation was part of the ‘speak–up’ practices in the classroom, the teacher’s sudden smile could imply that the teacher felt more relaxed at that moment. Having stated before that Thai teachers rarely applied ‘mime’ or nonverbal communication in their teachings, one instance of hand gesture used by NT3 and one instance of hand gesture applied by NT4 emerged in the analysis. An example is shown below;

Excerpt 7 : Illustration of 'mime' of the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in lesson 1

Minute 4.52

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T3:	OK, next activity in the picture is to visit….an…a…
S(w/c):	Aquarium (one student replied).
T3:	Aquarium. Yes, very good. So what is aquarium? It's a museum, right, of fish or whatever! (Teacher used his hands to make a square shape of an aquarium). And some people say it's a kind of box of fish, right! So visit aquarium, right. Very good. So next activity is…

Excerpt 7 exemplifies the use of 'mime' by the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in the 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class. In this passage, the teacher used hand gestures to demonstrate a shape of the aquarium after he verbally elaborated the meaning of this word. He would like to create an obvious picture in students' minds regarding the vocabulary and he also wanted to reassure that his students, that they were on the same page as him.

Excerpt 8 : Illustration of ‘mime ‘of the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in lesson 1

Minute 27.26	
Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
S(85):	10 o’clock travel to respect to cross wordship chain of Prae province.
T4:	What is that?
S(85):	ไม่ถูกหรอคะ(It is not correct?)
T4:	(The teacher used hand gestures: two hands touched her head and made a gesture like she was having a headache).
S(w/c):	(Laughed).

Excerpt 8 exemplifies the use of ‘mime’ by the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in the English Conversation class. In this incident, the student was giving some information about her province in a small role play. It looked as if the sentence that the student or S(85) uttered was grammatically incorrect and it did not make any sense to the teacher. Hence, the teacher asked S(85) back about what she meant by saying that sentence. The answer received from the student even made the teacher feel frustrated. At this point, the teacher used two hands and touched her head in order to make the headache gesture as she was stunned by S(85)’s reply.

4.3.1.2 Teachers’ use of ‘approximation’

Having mentioned earlier that ‘approximation’ was considered the least used strategy amongst ‘language switch’ and ‘mime’, ‘approximation’ was only applied in teaching lessons by the male Thai lecturer (NT3). From the Nvivo analysis, 2 instances were found. The male Thai lecturer (NT3) applied this strategy as a way to elicit or to get the students to continue speaking as well as to

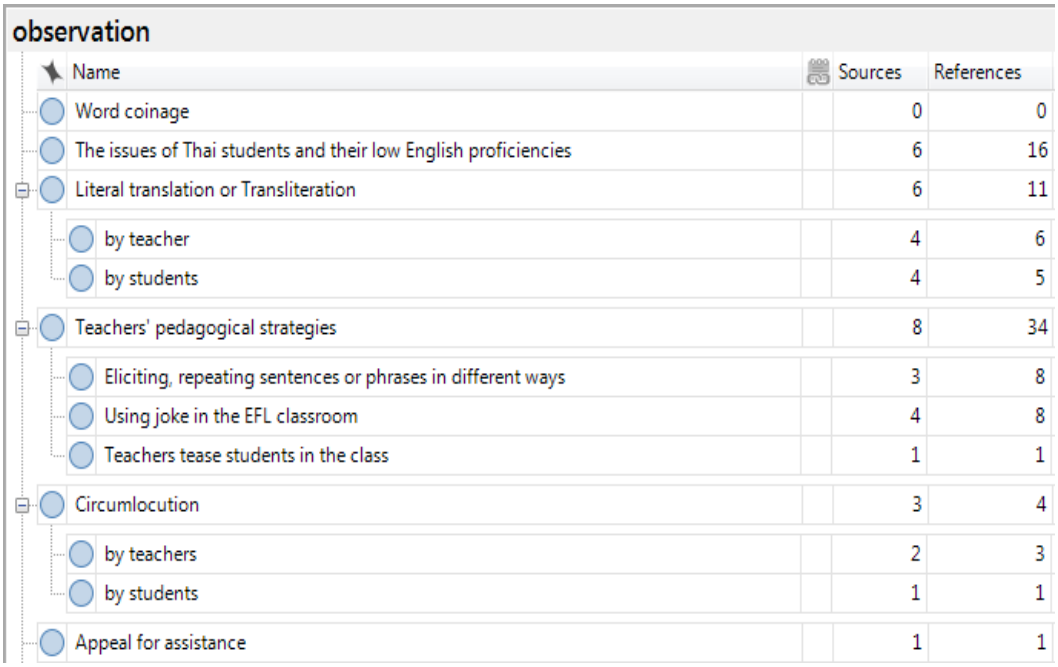
maintain the conversation with his students. The example of the use of ‘approximation’ is as follows:

Excerpt 9 : Illustration of ‘approximation’ of the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in lesson 2.

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
S(14):	I would like to travel to Japan.
T3:	I’d like to travel to Japan. Now, can I ask you some more questions about Japan? What would you like to see there? What would you like to do in Japan? Can you say something more about Japan? About things to do in Japan, place to go in Japan. Again?
T3: keep a	K–pop? *(The teacher provided a hint for this student as to conversation going).
S(14):	J–pop.
T3:	OK. J–pop in Japan, right? OK. You can say I’d like to travel to Japan to visit a mountain, ok, or to go to a pop concert. You can say something more about activities you like to do in the future. So one last example, I’d like to hear from S(15).

Excerpt 9 illustrates the use of ‘approximation’ by the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in the ‘Communicative English for Specific Purposes’ class. In this passage, the teacher used the word ‘K–pop’ to approximate or to share enough semantic or meaning to the students. By using this strategy, the teacher could maintain or keep the conversation going with the student. The use of approximation in this excerpt not only provided an opportunity for the teacher to give a hint to the student but also provided a chance for a student to do a self–correction of the target word.

Apart from the three CS strategies ('language switch', 'mime', 'approximation') utilised by the native and Thai lecturers in their classroom teachings, the other CS strategies found from the analysis of the classroom observations and audio recording of the classroom teachings in accordance with Tarone's taxonomies that were applied by the teachers are: 'literal translation' and 'circumlocution'.



observation

Name	Sources	References
Word coinage	0	0
The issues of Thai students and their low English proficiencies	6	16
Literal translation or Transliteration	6	11
by teacher	4	6
by students	4	5
Teachers' pedagogical strategies	8	34
Eliciting, repeating sentences or phrases in different ways	3	8
Using joke in the EFL classroom	4	8
Teachers tease students in the class	1	1
Circumlocution	3	4
by teachers	2	3
by students	1	1
Appeal for assistance	1	1

Figure 4.2 : The second overview coding of Tarone's CS taxonomies taken from the Nvivo11 software analysis.

4.3.1.3 Teachers' use of 'literal translation or transliteration'

According to figure 4.2, it is seen that 'literal translation or transliteration' was mostly applied amongst these three strategies: 'literal translation', 'circumlocution' and 'appeal for assistance'. In the analysis, it is also found that the male Thai lecturer (NT3) frequently applied this strategy followed by the American lecturer (NL1).

Excerpt 10 : Illustration of 'literal translation' of the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in lesson 1

Speaker	Transcribed exchange
T3:	To lift the elephant, right! That is not real elephant. It's kind of small structures for you to…to lift it ok! What do you do that for? So why do you lift the elephant in Wat Yai?
S®:	ขอพร

Excerpt 10 exemplifies the use of 'literal translation or transliteration' by the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in the 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class. In this passage, the word 'Wat Yai' was transliterated which means the lecturer used this Thai word as the way it is without changing the word into English before delivering it in the conversation. He probably did not want to create confusion in his students. Spontaneously, a student replied back to him in Thai by saying **'ขอพร'.** It could be seen that this student did not know how to say this vocabulary in English; therefore, she preferred to use a Thai word instead. The word 'ขอพร' literally means to ask for blessings. Obviously, this conversation was related to a Thai ceremony that is to ask for blessings while lifting the small structure elephant. This ceremony is one of the Thai beliefs and it is a part of things people can do at this temple. Also, it is found that the American lecturer sometimes applied 'literal translation' strategy as seen in the following excerpt. In addition, it can be noticed that both Thai teacher (NT3) and the American lecturer (NL1) used transliterated words when they talked about or referred to places and cultural aspects within Thai contexts.

Excerpt 11 : Illustration of 'literal translation' of the American lecturer (NL1) in lesson 1

T1:	Have anyone been to KhaoKor up in the mountain, route 12? Going towards Petchaboon (used his hand and pointed to the direction where the mountain was located). Have you been there?
S(w/c):	Quiet. *(This was assumed that the students did not understand the question)
T1:	It is (SP) beautiful. Wat Phra That DoiSuthep? (DoiSuthep temple– translated into Thai). Chiang Mai?
S:	Quiet.

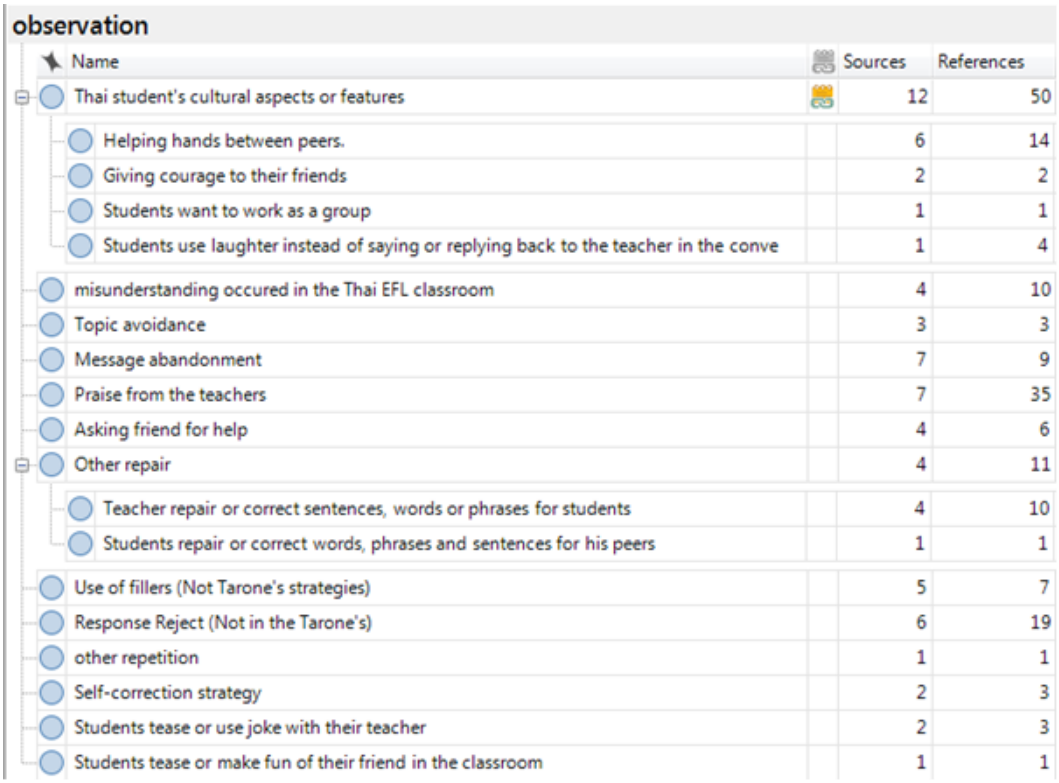
Excerpt 11 exemplifies the use of 'literal translation or transliteration' by the American lecturer (NL1) in the 'English for Communicative Purposes' class. In this passage, the teacher talked about the tourist places and mentioned a province in Thailand. The places are 'Kao Kor', 'Petchaboon' and 'Wat Phra That Doi Suthep'. These names were mentioned without adding or changing to English words. For example, the word 'Wat Phra That Doi Suthep' can be called Phra That Doi Suthep temple and 'Petchaboon' can be referred to Petchaboon province. It is seen that by using these Thai names or using transliterated words, it could make it clear and easier for students to follow the teacher's talk. Likewise, the male Thai lecturer (NT3), the American lecturer applied transliteration in order to refer to places or things related within the Thai contexts. Apart from the use of 'literal translation', 'circumlocution' was only applied by the American lecturer (NT1) amongst the four lecturers seen in the following passage.

4.3.1.4 Teachers' use of 'circumlocution'

Excerpt 12 : Illustration of 'circumlocution' of the American lecturer (NL1) in lesson 3

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T1:	Now, something you may hear. Someone say…I'll come around and have a look at it. Please leave a message and I'll get back to you as soon as I can. "It's a 10 minute walk to the shop". These are things you might hear on the phone. If you call someone and you hear "please leave a message and I'll get back to you as soon as I can!" What is that? What is that?
S(w/c):	Silence (nobody answered the questions). *

Excerpt 12 illustrates the use of 'circumlocution' by the American lecturer (NL1) in the 'English for Communicative Purposes' class. Normally NL1 used 'circumlocution' when he would like to explain or describe characteristics or elements of some specific objects or things. In this passage, the lecturer described some features of 'voice mail' of a mobile phone. The response he received afterwards was: the whole class remained silent. None of the students replied or guessed the meaning of the vocabulary. To remain silent is considered one of the Thai student classroom cultural aspects. It is noticed that Thai students keep silent in the classroom especially after the teacher asks them some questions. This is in line with Apaibanditkul (2006) for the fact that students raised in collectivist cultures do not like to ask question and speak up publicly in classrooms. In my perspective, Thai students keeping quiet or remaining silent in the classroom can become one of the main issues or obstacles in English language learning and in cross–cultural communication.



observation

Name	Sources	References
Thai student's cultural aspects or features	12	50
Helping hands between peers.	6	14
Giving courage to their friends	2	2
Students want to work as a group	1	1
Students use laughter instead of saying or replying back to the teacher in the conve	1	4
misunderstanding occured in the Thai EFL classroom	4	10
Topic avoidance	3	3
Message abandonment	7	9
Praise from the teachers	7	35
Asking friend for help	4	6
Other repair	4	11
Teacher repair or correct sentences, words or phrases for students	4	10
Students repair or correct words, phrases and sentences for his peers	1	1
Use of fillers (Not Tarone's strategies)	5	7
Response Reject (Not in the Tarone's)	6	19
other repetition	1	1
Self-correction strategy	2	3
Students tease or use joke with their teacher	2	3
Students tease or make fun of their friend in the classroom	1	1

Figure 4.3 ： The third overview coding of Tarone's CS taxonomies taken from the Nvivo11 software analysis.

Furthermore, the rest of Tarone's CS taxonomies seen in Figure 4.3 which are the use of 'word coinage', the use of 'topic avoidance', and the use of 'message abandonment' were not used by the four lecturers. Surprisingly, 'word coinage' was the only strategy not being used by the four lecturers and Thai students. 'Topic avoidance', 'message abandonment' and 'appeal for assistance were used only by the Thai students. The following table (table 4.2) summarised CCC(s) and CS(s) which were applied by native English lecturers and Thai lecturers under the use of Nvivo qualitative software analysis.

Table 4.2 ：A summary of Tarone's CSs taxonomies which were applied by the native English lecturers and Thai lecturers.

CS strategies	**Sources or (sets of data)**	**Number of teachers applied the following strategies**	**Total of References**
Approximation	1	(1) –the male Thai lecturer (NT3)	2
Word coinage	0	None	0
Circumlocution	2	(1) –the American lecturer (NL1)	3
Literal translation	4	(2) –the American lecturer (NL1) →2 references –the male Thai lecturer (NT3) →4 references	6
Language switch	12	(4) –the American lecturer (NL1) → 6 references –the British lecturer (NL2) →4 references –the male Thai lecturer (NT3) → 9 references –the female Thai lecturer (NT4) → 52 references	71
Appeal for assistance	1	None (*Only used by students in the second lesson of NT3)	1

CS strategies	Sources or (sets of data)	Number of teachers applied the following strategies	Total of References
Mime	7	(4) –the American lecturer (NL1) →18 references –the British lecturer (NL2) →5 references –the male Thai lecturer (NT3) → 1 reference –the female Thai lecturer (NT4) → 1 reference	25
Topic avoidance	3	(*Only used by students in the first lesson of NL1, NL2, and NT4)	3
Message abandonment	7	(Only applied by students in lesson 3 of NL1, lesson 1–3 of NL2, lesson 1&3 of NT3, and lesson 2 of NT4)	9

Table 4.3 ： Other CS strategies found apart from Tarone's CS(s) under the Nvivo analysis

CS strategies	Sources/ (sets of data)	Number of teachers applied the following strategies	References	Authors
Other repair	4	(3) –the American lecturer (NL1) ⇨ 3 references –the male Thai lecturer (NT3) ⇨ 6 references –the female Thai lecturer (NT4) ⇨ 1 reference	10	Willems (1987), Dörnyei& Scott (1995a, 1995b)
Response confirm	11	(3) –the American lecturer (NL1) ⇨ 27 references –the British lecturer (NL2) ⇨ 2 references –the male Thai lecturer (NT3) ⇨ 25 references –the female Thai lecturer (NT4) ⇨ 9 references	63	Dörnyei& Scott (1995a, 1995b)
Response reject	1	(1) –the male Thai lecturer (NT3) Note* (This strategy was mostly used by the students)	1	Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)

Not only Tarone's CS taxonomies were examined while observing the classroom teachings of the four lecturers, but other CCC(s) and CS(s) also suggested by various authors. That is, CS taxonomies created by Willems (1987), Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) were also been found. These strategies were 'other repair', 'response confirm', and 'response reject' strategy.

4.3.2 The use of other CS strategies apart from Tarone's CS taxonomies by native English lecturers and Thai lecturers in their classroom teachings

4.3.2.1 Teachers' use of 'other repair' strategy

In the table 4.2, this strategy was applied by three lecturers– the American lecturer (NL1), the male Thai lecturer (NT3), and the female Thai lecturer (NT4). This strategy was introduced by Willems (1987) and is referred to an incident of correcting something in the interlocutor's speech. With the use of the Nvivo analysis, it is noticed that the male Thai lecturer (NT3) often corrected words, phrases or sentences for his students and 6 instances were presented as evidence. Following the use of 'other repair' of NT3, this strategy was rarely applied by NL1 and NT4. Only 3 instances and 1 instance emerged from NL1 and NT4 lessons, respectively. Some examples of the use of the 'other repair' strategy can be viewed in the following excerpts;

Excerpt 13 : Illustration of ‘other repair’ of the American lecturer (NL1) in lesson 3

Speaker	Transcribed exchange
T1:	So which of these three show us a garage? Which picture shows us a garage? What is a garage? But what is a garage? What do you use a garage for?
S®:	Parking cars. (1)*
T1:	To park a car. (2)*

Excerpt 13 demonstrates the use of ‘other repair’ by the American lecturer (NL1) in the ‘English for Communicative Purposes’ class. In this passage, it is obviously seen that, NL1 simplified or rephrased a question for students in the whole class and one student immediately replied back to him with an answer. Shortly afterwards, NL1 said the correct sentence for the student or he corrected the sentence for S®. To rephrase or to simplify phrases or sentences in English can be considered a pedagogical strategy used by English teachers in order to make that particular phrase or sentence much easier for students to comprehend.

Excerpt 14 : Illustration of ‘other repair’ of the male lecturer (NT3) in lesson 3.

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
S(q):	How many people?
S(s):	One people.
T3:	One, one person. One person, two people (teacher corrected the sentence for the student).

Excerpt 14 demonstrates the use of ‘other repair’ by the male lecturer (NT3) in the ‘English for Communicative Purposes’ class. In this passage, NT3 corrected a phrase for S(s) during the time that S(q) and S(s) conversed as to illustrate English conversation patterns they had learned in the lesson to NT3.

Excerpt 15 : Illustration of ‘other repair’ of the female lecturer (NT4) in lesson 3.

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange** .
T4:	โดยสวัสดิภาพแกเปิด Google มาได้ว่า welfare. (Arrived safely and you used Google translate and got the word welfare instead?)
S(w/c):	(Laughed).
T4:	Safelyนะลูก (my son/ my daughter) (Arrived safely).

Excerpt 15 demonstrates the use of ‘other repair’ by the female lecturer (NT4) in the ‘English Conversation’ class. In this passage, it was an incident at the time of student group presentations. Students in this class were assigned by NT4 to give a presentation about tourist agents and organising a trip in Thailand. At the end of the each group presentation, NT4 commented on their presentation and their use of English. Here, the teacher told a student to use the words ‘arrived safely’ instead of ‘welfare’. A student mentioned the word ‘welfare’ at the end of her group presentation and NT4 assumed that this student probably took this word from ‘Google Translate’ which was an incorrect word. Besides, the teacher used a word–“my son” or “my daughter” at the end of her sentence after correcting the word for the student. It can be interpreted that the teacher would like the students to feel close to her as if he or she is one of her children so that the student could feel at ease whilst learning English and memorising the correct words at the same time.

4.3.2.2 Teachers’ use of ‘response confirm’ strategy

Amongst these additional strategies mentioned above, the ‘response confirm’ strategy suggested by Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) was mostly applied by all four lecturers. For NT1, 27 instances of ‘response confirm’ were found. In NT2’s lessons, 63 instances occurred. 25 instances of this strategy emerged in NT3’s lesson and only 9 instances were found in NT4’s lessons. The following examples demonstrate the ‘response confirm’ strategy employed by these four lecturers in various contexts.

Excerpt 16 : Illustration of 'response confirm of the American lecturer (NL1) in lesson 2.

Minutes 5.14

Student remained silent.

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T1:	How many people are talking?
S4:	Three. (The rest of the class remained quiet)
T1:	Three people.
T1:	Why does Mark leave the conversation? Why does he leave? Why does he leave them to talk?
S4:	Because he has to go to see some more few people to come to the party.
T1:	To talk to other people. Excellent! That is correct.

Excerpt 16 demonstrates the use of 'response confirm' by the American lecturer (NL1) in the 'English for Communicative Purposes' class. In this excerpt, it can be clearly seen that NL1 not only confirmed answers from the students but he also added a compliment to the student (S4) after he realised that this student gave the right answer. Teacher's confirmation sentences could be one of his pedagogical strategies.

Excerpt 17 : Illustration of ‘response confirm of the British lecturer (NL2) in lesson 1.

Minute 26.40

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T2:	We have climate. What is climate?
S®:	อากาศ (Ar–Guad– weather).
T2:	Weather, yeah…weather.

Excerpt 17 demonstrates the use of ‘response confirm’ by the British lecturer (NL2) in the ‘Introduction to Business class. In this excerpt, the teacher asked his students in class about the meaning of climate. There was one student who volunteered to answer this question and this student chose to give an answer in Thai. NL2 probably realised that the answer that the student gave could mean ‘weather’ so he responded in class by confirming S®’s answer in English, repeating the word ‘weather’ twice to reassure that this was the right answer. As stated that NL2 was the only one who frequently applied this strategy compared to the other three lecturers, this could point to the fact that the teacher wanted to decrease classroom miscommunication.

Excerpt 18 : Illustration of 'response confirm of the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in lesson 1.

Minute 6.24

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T3:	Now, I would like you to listen to a conversation between two people. First one is Calum and he is a tourist. Just arrived to new Zealand, Oakland. And the other one is Amy, a tourist officer. So let's listen to their conversation.
T3:	(Turned on the conversation).
T3:	OK. This is the first activity, right? What is that?
S(w/c):	To see dolphin (students murmured).
T3:	OK. Very good. It's just like we have heard before.

Excerpt 18 demonstrates the use of 'response confirm' by the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in the 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes'. In this excerpt, the teacher started by requesting the students to listen to an audio extract of a listening activity. Afterwards he asked the students a question regarding this listening extract. Some students in the whole class were not sure about the answer so they murmured and talked softly about the possible answer. Shortly after, NT3 confirmed the right answer with a compliment.

Excerpt 19 : Illustration of 'response confirm' of the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in lesson 2

Speaker	Transcribed exchange
T4:	4 hours. Great! And how long from Jasper to Calgary?....Huh? How many hours?
S(42):	Five (One student replied).
T4:	OK. Only 5 hoursnaka.

Excerpt 19 demonstrates the use of 'response confirm' by the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in the 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class. This passage simply shows how the female Thai teacher confirmed the correct answer to S(42), though, only one student responded back to this question. Another factor which was noticed in the observation and audio recordings of the classroom teachings was that many times only one or two students were willing to respond or reply back to their teacher's questions. This incident could imply several cultural aspects of Thai students whilst studying English; such as a lack of self–confidence, a lack of English language proficiency, the face–saving issue and being the centre of attention, all of which will be discussed in the following chapter.

4.3.2.3 Teachers' use of 'response reject' strategy

Having referred to Table 4.2, 'response reject' strategy was mostly applied by Thai students. However, it was found that the male Thai lecturer (NT3) also applied this strategy once in his teaching lesson. Below is an example of 'response reject' strategy employed by NT3 in lesson 3;

Excerpt 20 : Illustration of 'response reject' of the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in lesson 3

Minute 3.32	
Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T3:	Where is New Zealand, in what continent ? New Zealand ?
S®:	South Africa ?
T3:	No! Not even close. Can you try again?

Excerpt 20 demonstrates the use of 'response reject' by the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in the 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class. In this passage, NT3 asked a question to the students in the whole class after they had listened to an audio extract. One student gave him an answer. The teacher then rejected the answer received from this student. He did not want to stop this student and other students from answering the correct answer. Thus, the teacher again requested S® and other students in the class to provide him some new answers.

Other than those included in the taxonomies of Tarone (1977; 1983), Willems (1987), and Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b), pedagogical strategies used by the native English lecturers were also discovered as seen in the following table;

Table 4.4 : Pedagogical strategies found in the observation and audio recording of classroom teachings taken from Nvivo software analysis.

Teacher pedagogical strategies	**Sources/ sets of data**	**Number of teachers applied the following strategies**	**Total of References**
Eliciting or repeating sentences in different ways	3	(2) – the American lecturer (NL1) ⇨ 1 reference – the male Thai lecturer (NT3) ⇨ 7 references	8
Teasing students during the teaching lessons	1	(1) – the female Thai lecturer (NT4) ⇨ 1 reference	1
Using jokes in the EFL classroom	4	(2) – the male Thai lecturer (NT3) ⇨ 5 references – the female Thai lecturer (NT4) ⇨ 3 reference	8
Praise from teachers	7	(3) – the American lecturer (NL1) ⇨ 5 references – the male Thai lecturer (NT3) ⇨ 19 references – the female Thai lecturer (NT4) ⇨ 11 references	35

4.3.2.4 Teacher's use of 'eliciting and repeating sentences' in different ways

According to the table demonstrated above, 'eliciting and repeating phrases or sentences' in English was used by two lecturers, the American lecturer (NL1) and the male Thai lecturer (NT3). Also, it was found that NL1 seldom applied this strategy as only one instance is shown in the analysis. For NT3, this strategy was applied more often compared to NL1 and 7 references found in his teaching lessons.

Excerpt 21 : Illustration of 'eliciting and repeating sentences' of the American lecturer (NL1) in lesson 3

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T1:	What is land? …(2 seconds) …What is land? What is it – land ? *(Teacher tries to elicit the meaning of word that could lead to the meaning of the target vocab).
S(w/c):	No answers from any students.

Excerpt 21 demonstrates the use of 'eliciting' by the American lecturer (NT3) in the 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class. In this passage, the lecturer repeated the same sentences several times very slowly and clearly. In other words, he tried to elicit the answer from the students in the whole class as he was talking about the word 'landlord'. However, all students in that class remained silent.

Excerpt 22 : Illustration of ‘eliciting and repeating sentences’ of the male lecturer (NL3) in lesson 1

Speaker	Transcribed exchange
S(14):	I would like to travel to Japan.
T3:	I’d like to travel to Japan. Now, can I ask you some more questions about Japan? What would you like to see there? What would you like to do in Japan? Can you say something more about Japan? About things to do in Japan, place to go in Japan. Again?

Excerpt 22 demonstrates the use of ‘eliciting’ by the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in the ‘English for Specific Purposes’ class. In this passage, S(14) answered the previous question of NT3. Later on, the teacher started asking S(14) a few more questions related to student’s response. It could be seen that the questions the lecturer requested the students to answer had also helped him to elicit more possible responses or answers from this student.

4.3.2.5 Teacher used ‘teasing’ in teaching lesson.

In order to make the classroom atmosphere more relaxed, there are several ways that can be employed by the lecturer. Another way that the female Thai teacher used was ‘teasing’ her students. An example of the teacher teasing students during the teaching lesson is shown below;

Excerpt 23 : Illustration of female Thai lecturer (NT4) teasing students in lesson 2

Speaker	Transcribed exchange
T4:	ถ้างั้นเดี๋ยวลองดูสิครูว่าควรจะกินข้าวโรงอาหารเพราะว่ามันอร่อยมากจริง ๆ (Let's try it! Do you think I should eat in the canteen because the food there is tasty?)
S(45):	A……
S(w/c):	Huh…..Huh…. (A few students laughed).
T4:	เอาสักประโยคสิไหนลองสิ
S(w/c):	It's well worth eating…..
T4:	It's well worth eating at the canteen.
S(46):	Yeah!
T4:	It's really nice!.....Ha….ha….ha (Teacher laughed and smiled:).
S(w/c):	(A few students laughed and the rest remained quiet).

Excerpt 23 demonstrates the use of 'teasing' by the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in the 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class. In this passage, the lecturer got the student to talk about eating in the canteen. The teacher knew that food in the canteen was not tasty. When some students started producing an English sentence they had learned in class in order to talk about eating in the canteen, the teacher then finished off their sentence. This made some students laugh because the teacher was teasing with her students. She mentioned that eating the food at the canteen was delicious at the end of the conversation. All students knew that what the teacher said was the opposite of the reality and she just wanted to tease her students.

4.3.2.6 Teacher used ‘jokes’ in Thai EFL classrooms

In the analysis, it is clearly seen that only two lecturers, the male Thai lecturers (NT3) and the female Thai lecturers (NT4), applied jokes in their classes. Besides, it was found that NT3 applied more jokes than NT4. There were 5 instances found in NT3’s classes and only 3 instances emerged in NT4’s classes. The following excerpts demonstrate a teachers’ use of ‘jokes’ in different contexts.

Excerpt 24 : Illustration of ‘jokes’ applied by the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in lesson 3

Minute 34.44

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T3:	Now I’d like you to work in pair with your partner. OK. You kind of ask your partner about this question and the other person answer the question. Think about yourself. Think about your interest. What you would like to do in the future, ok! OK! Now I’d like you to work in pair, ok. One is asking some questions and the other is answering these questions,alrigh? And then you finish, you kind of take turn, alrigh! Here, we go! Think about any places you like to go to! Maybe in our country, Thailand. Maybe in Japan to see J–pop, right? Maybe in North Korea! No! South Korea, excuse me!
S(w/c):	(Remained quiet). * (The students did not understand teacher’s joke about visiting North Korea).

Excerpt 24 demonstrates the use of ‘joke’ by the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in the ‘Communicative English for Specific Purposes’ class. In this passage, NT3 assigned his students to work with a partner in order to practice speaking by using the conversation pattern they learned in class. At the end of NT3’s instruction, he added a joke about places that student could think of, places they would like to visit and he also mentioned North Korea. Even though, the teacher said ‘excuse me’ after he had mentioned North Korea to be a place that student could choose to

visit, the whole class remained quiet. Probably, the students did not understand the teacher's joke. It can be seen that a lack of understanding of English jokes might come from the language issue or the low English proficiency of the students.

Excerpt 25 : Illustration of 'jokes' applied by the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in lesson 1

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
S(w/c):	Think…thick (Thai style pronunciation of English).
T4:	เวลาออกเสียงthทำยังไงคะเอาลิ้นออกมาเอาลิ้นแตะที่ฟันหน้าถ้าใครไม่มีฟันหน้าเอาแตะที่ฟันปลอมที่ใส่นะคะ (When you pronounced the sound 'th' what should you do? You just need to put your tongue out of your mouth, stick your tongue to your front teeth. If someone doesn't have front teeth, just touch your tongue at your false teeth).
S(w/c):	(Laughed).

Excerpt 25 demonstrates the use of 'joke' by the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in the 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class. In this excerpt, the Thai lecturer used Thai joke during the time she explained about how to pronounce 'th' sound in English. The teacher described it clearly on how to form and adjust the position of their tongue while producing this sound. Her Thai joke also made the whole class laugh.

4.3.2.7 Teachers used 'praise' in Thai EFL classrooms

The use of 'praise' from teachers was also found in the Nvivo analysis apart from other pedagogical strategies mentioned earlier. There were three lecturers who used this strategy: the American lecturer (NL1), the male Thai lecturer (NT3),

and the female Thai lecturer (NT4). Besides, it was revealed that NT3 mostly applied this strategy (19 instances) followed by NT4 (11 instances) and NT3 (5 instances) respectively.

Excerpt 26 : Illustration of 'praise' in the Thai EFL classroom by the American lecturer (NL1) in lesson 2

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T1:	Another hour. What will you do at 12 o'clock?
S3:	(Looked and consulted his friend before giving the answer). Have lunch.
T1:	Have lunch! Perfect.

Excerpt 26 demonstrates the use of 'praise' by the American lecturer (NL1) in the 'English for Communicative Purposes' class. In this passage, NT1 asked a simple question to the students in the whole class. Before S3 gave an answer to the teacher, he had talked with or consulted his friend then he delivered the answer to the teacher. Although it looked like the student's answer was simple, NT1 also encouraged S3 by providing him a compliment afterwards.

Excerpt 27 : Illustration of 'praise' in the Thai EFL classroom by the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in lesson 2

Speaker	Transcribed exchange
T3:	OK. And what day is the best day for you to go to a waterfall? What day is best?
S(20):	Merry Christmas day (used her hands to cover her mouth after the talk).
T3:	Ah….huh…huh… very good, very good. Lovely! OK!
S(w/c):	(Laughed).

Excerpt 27 demonstrates the use of 'praise' by the male Thai lecturer (NT3) in the 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class. In this passage, the teacher asked a question to S(20) about the best day to visit a waterfall in Thailand. It seemed like the answer that S(20) gave to NT3 was acceptable but it was not a grammatically correct answer. When S(20) covered her mouth after responding NT3, she probably realised that her answer was not totally correct. However, NT3 was satisfied with her answer. Shortly after, NT3 gave a compliment to the student as to give an encouragement.

Excerpt 28 : Illustration of 'praise' in the Thai EFL classroom by the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in lesson 2

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T4:	And how long does it take from Lake Louise to Jasper?
S(w/c):	Four. (Many students said at the same time).
T4:	4 hours. Great!

Excerpt 28 demonstrates the use of 'praise' by the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in the 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class. In this passage, many students in NT4's class were able to provide a correct answer to her. The teacher was satisfied with their answer; therefore, she gave a compliment to them as to encourage them to keep talking or responding to her questions in the class.

4.3.3 The use of Tarone's CS taxonomies by Thai students

In the analysis of classroom observations and the audio recordings of classroom teachings by the use of Nvivo software, eight CS strategies of Tarone (1977; 1983) were applied by Thai students. These eight strategies were: 'appeal for assistance', 'approximation' 'circumlocution', 'language switch', 'literal translation', 'topic avoidance', 'message abandonment', and 'mime'. Furthermore, 'language switch' was mostly applied by the students in the classes of the female Thai lecturer (NT4), followed by the use of 'mime', 'approximation', 'literal translation', 'message abandonment', and 'topic avoidance' respectively. Meanwhile, 'appeal for assistance' and 'circumlocution' were the least applied strategies compared to the others. The following table demonstrates Tarone's CS taxonomies applied by Thai students;

Table 4.5 : A demonstration of Tarone's CS taxonomies applied by Thai students

CS strategies	Sources	Reference
Approximation	7	Total (13)–found in NL2 lesson 1 ⇨ 2 references –found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 1 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 3 references –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 references –found in NT4 lesson 2 ⇨ 3 references –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 references
Word coinage	0	Total 0 reference
Circumlocution	1	Total (1) –found in NT3 lesson 3
Literal translation	4	Total (5) –found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference
Language switch	9	Total (62) –found in NL2 lesson 1 ⇨ 8 references –found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 7 references –found in NL2 lesson 3 ⇨ 6 references –found in NT3 lesson 1 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 3 references –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 6 references –found in NT4 lesson 1 ⇨ 16 references –found in NT4 lesson 2 ⇨ 7 references –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 7 references

CS strategies	Sources	Reference
Appeal for assistance	1	Total (1) –found in NT3 lesson 2 of NT3
Mime	9	Total (36)–found in NL1 lesson 1 ⇨ 4 references –found in NL1 lesson 2 ⇨ 6 references –found in NL1 lesson 3 ⇨ 4 references –found in NL2 lesson 1 ⇨ 7 references –found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 3 references –found in NL2 lesson 3 ⇨ 9 references –found in NT3 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference
Topic avoidance	3	Total (3)–found in NL1 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NL2 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT4 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference
Message abandonment	7	Total (7)–found in NL1 lesson 3 ⇨ 2 references –found in NL2 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 2 references –found in NL2 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT4 lesson 2 ⇨ 1 reference

According to table 4.4, ‘language switch’ was mostly applied by Thai students especially in the classes of female Thai lecturer (NT4). There were 30 instances or evidences of ‘language switch’ found in NT4’s classes, 20 instances found in NT2’s classes, and 11 instances emerged in NT3’s classes. Surprisingly, there were no evidences or references of ‘language switch’ used by Thai students in NL1’s classes. An example of the use of ‘language switch’ strategy is seen as follows;

4.3.3.1 Students used ‘language switch’ in Thai EFL classrooms

Excerpt 29 : Illustration of ‘language switch’ applied by a Thai student in lesson 3 of the female Thai lecturer (NT4).

Minute 30.40	
Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T4:	แค่นี้เลยหรอแล้วแกเอา **S®** กับ **S(xi)** มาพูด 2 ประโยคนี้เหรอ ? (That’s it! You just got S®and S(xi) to speak only two sentences in the role play?).
S(w/c):	(Laughed)
S(87):	เพื่อนเค้าแบ่งมา (My friend told me to do it).

Excerpt 29 demonstrates the use of ‘language switch’ by a Thai student majoring in Tourism in ‘English Conversation’ class of NT4. Normally, NT4 spoke Thai and English interchangeably in her classroom. In this passage, the teacher asked S(87) in Thai about the reason that she only spoke two sentences in her role play. Therefore, S(87) did not hesitate to reply back to NT4 in Thai instead of English. Probably, a reason that the majority of Thai students switched to Thai in order to answer the questions of NT4 was because the frequency of Thai language spoken by the female Thai lecturer whilst teaching and communicating in the Thai EFL classrooms.

4.3.3.2 Students used ‘mime’ in Thai EFL classrooms

The use of ‘mime’ was ranked the second strategy Thai students applied in their classrooms. In the analysis, the majority of Thai students mostly applied different types of nonverbal communication such as smiling, nodding, and shaking head, raising hand, expressing hand gestures, and making various facial expressions while communicating with the British lecturer. Also, it is found that the students often utilised ‘smile’, ‘nodding face’, and hand gestures during the time they were having conversation with their lecturers. Many students of NL2 chose to cross–culturally communicate with their teacher using ‘mime’ compared to other classes, this could possibly result from many reasons. Firstly, the teacher is a native English speaker who only speaks English and hardly switched to Thai in his classroom teachings. Another reason could be from the lack of English proficiency issue of Thai students. Additionally, there were no instances of the use of ‘mime’ in NT4’s classrooms. This could point to the fact that the students did not need to use much effort when communicating with NT4. That is, the students could switch to Thai all the time with the teacher. An example of ‘mime’ can be seen below;

Excerpt 30 : Illustration of ‘mime’ applied by Thai students in lesson 3 of the British lecturer (NL2).

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T2:	Communism, what is communism?
S3:	(Shook his head).
S1 & S4:	(Smiled).
S2:	(Mumbled).

Excerpt 30 demonstrates the use of ‘mime’ by the Thai students majoring in International Business in ‘Introduction to International Business’ class of NL2. For a definition of mime; please see section 2.7 in the literature review chapter. In

this passage, it is seen that NL2 asked a question to the students in the whole class. Nobody in this class were able to provide an answer to the teacher, though a few students chose to respond back to the teacher by shaking their head and smiling. This could be interpreted that S3, S1 and S4 did not know the correct answer, therefore their nonverbal communication or 'mime' helped convey the meaning of what they wanted to talk to their lecturer. Besides, the fact that S3, S1 and S4 used 'mime' to communicate with their lecturer supports identification of the lack of confidence in English speaking issue of the Thai students.

4.3.3.3 Students used 'approximation' in Thai EFL classrooms

As mentioned before, 'approximation' was ranked the third strategy that Thai students applied while communicating with their lecturers. According to the analysis, the students in NT3 employed this strategy repeatedly more than the students of NL2 and of NT4. The analysis also showed that there were 6 instances found in NT3's lessons, 4 instances emerged in NT4's lessons, and only 3 references found in NT2's lessons. However, there were no instances of the use of 'approximation' revealed in NL1's lessons. An example of the use of 'approximation' by a student is shown below;

Excerpt 31 : Illustration of 'approximation' applied by a Thai student in lesson 2 of the male Thai lecturer (NT3).

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T3:	No! What….what type of guitar do you like playing?
S(8):	Metal.
T3:	Acoustic?
S(8):	Ah…rock!

Excerpt 31 demonstrates the use of 'approximation' by a Thai student majoring in Political Science in 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class of NT3. In this passage, S(8) selected a word 'metal' to answer NT3's question about the type of guitar he liked playing. At first, the answer the student gave to NT3 was not totally right. Later on, NT3 asked him again by applying 'approximation' strategy– using the word 'acoustic' to get him on the right track. Finally, S(8) was able to provide the proper answer for NT3's question.

4.3.3.4 Students used 'message abandonment' in Thai EFL classrooms

There were 9 instances of 'message abandonment found in the four lecturers' lessons. It was discovered that some students in NL2's classes occasionally used this strategy in their communication with the lecturers, whereas a few students rarely applied this strategy. To illustrate, there were 4 instances which emerged in NL2's lessons, 2 references found in NL1 and NT3 lessons, and only 1 instance emerged in NT4's classes. An example of 'message abandonment' is shown as follows;

Excerpt 32 : Illustration of 'message abandonment' applied by a Thai student in lesson 1 of the British lecturer (NL2).

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
S3:	I think, German is better than Brazil.
T2:	OK, why?
S3:	Because Germany is in the middle and it has a…..(she could not finish her sentences).

Excerpt 32 demonstrates the use of 'message abandonment' by a Thai student majoring in International Business in 'Introduction to International Business' class of NL2. In this passage, it was disclosed that S3 stopped in mid utterance

after she was trying to explain her thoughts about Germany to NL2. When NL2 saw that S3 stopped explaining, he continued giving an explanation about this to S3 and to the whole class.

4.3.3.5 Students used 'literal translation' in Thai EFL classrooms

The use of literal translation or transliteration was rarely applied by Thai students. There were three instances or evidences found in NT3 classes. Only 1 instance emerged in the classes of NT2 and NT4 and there was no evidence of this strategy being used in NL1's classes. An example of 'literal translation' applied by a Thai student is displayed as follows;

Excerpt 33 : Illustration of 'literal translation' applied by a Thai student in lesson 3 of the male Thai lecturer (NT3). (See table 4.1 for a definition of 'literal translation').

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
S(w/c):	(A few students laughed).
T3:	I'd love to. So where are you going to drink?
S(u):	พาเพลิน(Plaplern)
T3:	Again! พา...พาเพลิน (Plaplern). OK! And it's the name of the pub, right? OK! พาเพลิน (Plaplern) pub and restaurant. Where is that? Where is พาเพลิน?
S(u):	ซอยโลคีย์ (Soi Low–Kee) (Students in the class were shouting).

Excerpt 33 demonstrates the use of 'literal translation' by a Thai student majoring in Law in 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class of NT3. As seen in the excerpt, S(u) answered the teacher's question by using transliterated word

which referred to a place in Thailand. Later on, NT3 used this transliterated word in sentences and to query more questions to the student. At the end of the conversation, S(u) chose to provide an answer to NT3 by using another transliterated word.

4.3.3.6 Students used ‘topic avoidance’ in Thai EFL classrooms

The ‘Topic avoidance’ strategy was ranked the sixth amongst the eight strategies employed by the Thai students. In fact, topic avoidance was scarcely applied by Thai students. A few instances occurred in only one class of NL1, NL2, and NT4. An example of the use of ‘topic avoidance’ can be seen as follows;

Excerpt 34 : Illustration of ‘topic avoidance’ applied by a Thai student in lesson 1 of the British lecturer (NL2).

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T2:	Good! Anyone wants to describe that map (SP) for me? Anyone wants to describe it? Anyone want to describe it?
S(w/c):	(Nobody answered, some students murmured while many students remained quiet).

Excerpt 34 demonstrates the use of ‘topic avoidance’ by a Thai student majoring in International Business in ‘Introduction to International Business’ class of NL2. In this passage, NL2 requested a volunteer in the class to describe a map for him. However, nobody in class wanted to volunteer answering the question. At the same time, some students murmured about the answer and some remained quiet, though no one was confident to speak up in class. This might come from several causes such as the lack of English proficiency, a lack of confidence, their fear of making mistakes etc.

4.3.3.7 Students used ‘circumlocution’ in Thai EFL classrooms

Thai students rarely applied this strategy in the classrooms. There was merely one instance in the male Thai lecturer (NT3) class. An example of the use of ‘circumlocution’ is displayed below;

Excerpt 35 : Illustration of ‘circumlocution’ applied by a Thai student in lesson 3 of the male Thai lecturer (NT3).

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T3:	Is that for 12 seats or 24 seats?
S1:	I…I..because it’s so much….so much.

Excerpt 35 demonstrates the use of ‘circumlocution’ by a Thai student majoring in Law in ‘Communicative English for Specific Purposes’ class of NT3. In this excerpt, T3 and his friend were assigned to practice a conversation using the pattern they had learned in class. S1 was selected by T3 to answer a question regarding the lesson topic. S1 used the words ‘so much’ for his answer about the seats on his private airplane.

4.3.3.8 Students used ‘appeal for assistance’ in Thai EFL classrooms

Likewise the use of the ‘circumlocution’ strategy, ‘appeal for assistance’ was rarely applied by the Thai students. Only 1 instance was found in lesson 2 of NT3. The following example of the use of ‘appeal for assistance’ can be viewed below;

Excerpt 36 : Illustration of 'appeal for assistance' applied by a Thai student in lesson 2 of the male Thai lecturer (NT3).

Speaker	Transcribed exchange
T3:	Everyone in this class. That's a lot. How can you get there? How can you go there? By driving yourself? Or you take a bus.
S(17):	By bus.
T3:	Ah! By bus, by coach right! By coach. You know a coach?
S(17):	(A female student did not understand the word coach so she looked at her friend and asked that friend about what the teacher just said).

Excerpt 36 demonstrates the use of 'appeal for assistance' by a Thai student majoring in Political Science in 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class of NT3. In this excerpt, S(17) did not know the meaning of the word 'coach' then she looked at her friend as if she needed help about the meaning of this word.

4.3.4 The use of other CCC and CS strategies apart from Tarone's CS taxonomies by Thai students.

There are other CCC(s) and CS(s) applied by Thai students in the classrooms apart from Tarone's CS taxonomies. These strategies are: 'mumbling', 'other repetition ',' responses confirm', 'response reject', 'self–correction', and 'use of fillers'. Amongst these six strategies, 'response confirm' was mostly applied by the students followed by 'response reject', 'mumbling', 'use of fillers', 'self–correction', and 'other–repetition' respectively. The following table manifests the use of other strategies by Thai students;

Table 4.6 ： An illustration of other strategies found apart from Tarone's CS(s) with the Nvivo analysis

CS strategies	**Sources**	**References**	**Authors**
Mumbling	5	(12) –found in NL1 lesson 3 ⇨ 3 references –found in NL2 lesson 1 ⇨ 2 reference –found in NT3 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 4 reference –found in NT4 lesson 2 ⇨ 2 reference	Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)
Other repetition	1	(1) –found in NL2 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference	Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)
Response confirm	9	(25)–found in NL2 lesson 1 ⇨ 2 references –found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 3 reference –found in NL2 lesson 3 ⇨ 4 references –found in NT3 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 6 reference –found in NT4 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT4 lesson 2 ⇨ 5 reference –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 2 reference	Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)

CS strategies	Sources	References	Authors
Response reject	6	(19)–found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 3 references –found in NL2 lesson 3 ⇨ 5 references –found in NT3 lesson 1 ⇨ 4 references –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 3 references –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT4 lesson 1 ⇨ 2 references	Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)
Self–repair	2	(3) –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 2 reference –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference	Willems(1987), Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)
Use of fillers	2	(7) –found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 2 references –found in NL2 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference	Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)

4.3.4.1 Students used ‘response confirm’ in Thai EFL classrooms

According to the table shown above, it is clearly seen that the students of NT2, NT3, and NT4 employed this strategy when communicating with their lecturers. It was discovered that the students in NL2’s classes were more likely to apply this strategy compared to the other students in NT3 and NT4’s classes. Therefore, there were 9 instances in NL2’s classes, and 8 instances found in NT3 and NT4’s lessons. In the male lecturer lessons, the students applied several types of mimes

to confirm their talk with him apart from saying–' yeah', 'oh!', 'I see', 'I think….'. The other mimes used by the students are: 'smiling' and 'nodding face'. Below is an example of 'response confirm' applied by a Thai student in NT2's lesson;

Excerpt 37 : Illustration of 'response confirm' applied by a Thai student in lesson 3 of the British lecturer (NL2).

Minute 19.38	
Speaker	Transcribed exchange
T2:	Are you presenting? Are you going to sing again?
S1:	(Smiled). * (This can be the response confirm that she is going to present).

Excerpt 37 demonstrates the use of 'response confirm' by a Thai student majoring in Business management in 'Introduction to Business' class of NL2. In this excerpt, S(1) answered or made a response confirm to the teacher by expressing 'smile'. This student or S(1) would like to confirm to NL2 that she was going to give a presentation without using verbal communication.

4.3.4.2 Students used 'response reject' in Thai EFL classrooms

This strategy was frequently utilised by the students of NT3 followed by NL2's students, and NT4's students. There were 9 instances or the use of 'response reject' evidence emerged in NT3's lessons, 8 instances occurred in NT2's lessons, and only 2 instances found in NT4's lessons. Thai students used a variety of rejected words such as 'no', 'oh!', 'awh'. Besides, Thai words were employed by the students to reject their talk with the lecturer. These Thai words are: 'ไม่ต้อง', 'ไม่'

which also mean ‘no’ in English. An example of ‘response reject’ can be seen below;

Excerpt 38 : Illustration of ‘response reject’ applied by a Thai student in lesson 2 of the British lecturer (NL2).

Minutes 54.23

Incident: Teacher reminded about how much time left for the group before a presentation.

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T2:	2 minutes
S(w/c):	Oh! (A few students hued as if they were complaining).

Excerpt 38 demonstrates the use of ‘response reject’ by a Thai student majoring in international Business in ‘Introduction to Business’ class of NL2. In this passage, NL2 reminded his students about the time so that they could hurry up and complete the work before the next presentation. A few students hued loudly and said ‘oh’ as a response back to the teacher. However, the sound of their response could be inferred to a reject of what NL2 just said.

4.3.4.3 Students used ‘mumbling’ in Thai EFL classrooms

Thai students moderately applied this strategy. It is seen that students of NT3 utilised this strategy the most amongst the students of the other lecturers. 5 instances emerged in the lessons of NT3, 3 instances in NL1’s lessons, and 2 instances were found in NL2 and NT4’s classes. Additionally, the use of mumbling could be interpreted as a sign of the lack of confidence of Thai students due to them being afraid of speaking up or speaking their thoughts aloud. It can be argued that the use of mumbling has to do with other factors related to students’

confidence, the notion of face–saving and the lack of English language proficiencies which will be discussed in the following chapter. Here, an example of the use ‘mumbling’ by a Thai student is shown below;

Excerpt 39 : Illustration of ‘mumbling’ applied by a Thai student in lesson 3 of the male Thai lecturer (NT3).

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T3:	Two days, one night. That’s enough for you, maybe! OK! Let me try, maybe one or two more examples. How about (teacher called another student), please? Here we go, so what did you decide to do?
S(u):	(Spoke very softly).

Excerpt 39 demonstrates the use of ‘mumbling’ by a Thai student majoring in law in ‘Communicative English for Specific Purposes’ class of NT3. In this passage, NT3 called upon students to answer a question one by one. S(u) murmured the answer for NT3 and this pointed to the fact that she was not confident enough to speak up in order to answer the teacher’s question for the first time.

4.3.4.4 Students used ‘fillers’ in Thai EFL classrooms

The use of ‘filler words’ was occasionally applied by Thai students especially in NL2’s classes (4 instances found). Only 2 instances emerged in NT3’s classes and 1 instance was found in NT4’s lessons. An example of the ‘use of fillers’ can be seen as follows;

Excerpt 40 : Illustration of ‘the use of fillers’ applied by a Thai student in lesson 2 of the British lecturer (NL2).

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
S(B):	By อะไรวะ (By Arai–Waa?–By what?) China has many Chinese people…um…(SP) Because when Thai people go to China easily to communication Thai people (Laughed).
T2:	7 minutes

Excerpt 40 demonstrates the ‘use of fillers’ by a Thai student majoring in International Business in ‘Introduction to International Business’ class of NL2. In this passage, S(B) used a filler sound ‘um’ to gain time and think of what to say next. The students of the three lecturers normally used the word ‘ah’ or ‘um’ to gain time so that he or she would remind some thoughts before delivering it to the interlocutor.

4.3.4.5 Students used ‘self–correction’ in Thai EFL classrooms

This strategy was rarely applied by Thai students. There were 3 instances in total. Only 2 instances found in NT3’s classes and 1 instance in NT4’s class. An example of the use of ‘self–correction’ strategy can be seen below;

Excerpt 41 : Illustration of ‘self–correction’ applied by a Thai student in lesson 3 of the female Thai lecturer (NT4).

Minute 18.30	
Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T4:	Why do you have to visit the temple: you said from 9 pm to 11 pm? ที่วัดมีอะไร (What can you do there at that time in the temple?)
S(80):	(Laughed).
S(w/c):	9–11 am (Students from the group said together).

Excerpt 41 demonstrates the use of ‘self–correction’ by a Thai student majoring in Tourism in ‘English Conversation’ class of NT4. In this passage, one of the students in a group made a mistake about the time to visit a temple in Thailand and NT4 made a comment on this. Shortly after, the same student was able to correct her own mistake by giving the proper time to visit the temple.

4.3.4.6 Students used ‘other repetition’ in Thai EFL classrooms

This strategy was hardly applied by Thai students in the classrooms. Only 1 reference found in NT2’s class. An example of the use of ‘other repetition’ is shown as follows;

Excerpt 42 : Illustration of 'other repetition' by a Thai student in lesson 1 of the British lecturer (NL2).

Speaker	Transcribed exchange
T2:	I go to China. I see these in China. However, (one of the students' name is Chinese). He made the same product and he reports my name on it. They copy the idea.
S®:	Copy.

Excerpt 42 demonstrates the use of 'other–repetition' by a Thai student majoring in International Business in 'Introduction to International Business' class of NL2. In this passage, S® repeated the word 'copy' that NT2 had mentioned in his explanation of product copyrights. Usually, a speaker uses this strategy to gain time before continuing his or her talk with the interlocutor. It was assumed that S® might want to speak more after saying the word 'copy'. However, it was clearly seen after that it was the only thing that this student wanted to say to the teacher.

4.3.5 Thai students cultural aspects found in the observations and audio recordings of classroom teachings.

The cultural aspects expressed by Thai students discovered under the analysis of Nvivo software include remaining silent, giving courage to their friends, helping hands between peers, using laughter instead of verbal communication to respond back to the lecturer, wanting to work as a group, teasing or making fun of their friends in class, and teasing or using jokes with their lecturer. These aspects are demonstrated in a table below;

Table 4.7 : Thai students cultural aspects found in the observation and audio recordings of classroom teachings

Cultural aspects	Sources	References
Keep quiet / remain silent	12	(50)–found in NL1 lesson 1 ⇨ 6 references –found in NL1 lesson 2 ⇨ 3 reference –found in NL1 lesson 3 ⇨ 4 reference –found in NL2 lesson 1 ⇨ 6 reference –found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 2 reference –found in NL2 lesson 3 ⇨ 3 references –found in NT3 lesson 1 ⇨ 4 references –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 6 references –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 5 references –found in NT4 lesson 1 ⇨ 4 references –found in NT4 lesson 2 ⇨ 5 references –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 2 references
Giving courage to their friends	2	(2) –found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT4 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference
Helping hands between peers	6	(14)–found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 2 references –found in NL2 lesson 3 ⇨ 5 references –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT4 lesson 2 ⇨ 1 reference
Using laughter instead of saying of using verbal to reply back to the lecturer in the conversation	1	(4) –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 4 references
Wanting to work as a group	1	(1) –found in NT4 lesson 2 ⇨ 1 reference

Cultural aspects	Sources	References
Students tease or make fun of their friends in the classroom	1	(1) –found in NT4 lesson 1 ⇨ 1 reference
*Student tease or use joke with their teacher	2	(3) –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT4 lesson 1 ⇨ 2 references

4.3.5.1 Students remained silent in Thai EFL classrooms

Silence is considered the main element of Thai student features. According to the table above, the majority of Thai students expressed silence during their communication with the lecturers. Many students from NT3's classes expressed silence much more frequently compared to other students from classes of NL1, NL2, and NT4. There were 18 instances which emerged in NT3's lessons, 13 instances in NT1's lessons, 11 references found in NT4's lessons and 8 in NL2's lessons. Additionally, it was discovered that the use of silence resulted from different problems or issues, mainly lack of understanding teachers' talks, questions, instructions followed by the lack of assurance or confidence to provide correct answers, and the lack of English language proficiency. Other causes of silence made by the students could also derive from being afraid of speaking up and their cultural courtesy that students expressed to their respected lecturers. Moreover, these causes of Thai students who remained quiet in the classrooms accounted for various themes emerging in this study. These issues of Thai students and their cultural aspects are discussed further in the following chapter. An example of Thai students remaining silent in class is shown as follows;

Excerpt 43 : Illustration of 'silence' expressed by a Thai student in lesson 1 of the male lecturer (NT3).

Minute 19.20

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T3:	OK. I'd like you to listen and then say some expressions to show your interest, alright! OK! For the first one! (Turned on the extract for students in order for them to respond back to the audio extract's conversations).
S(w/c):	(Remained quiet). *(At this point, I saw that most of the students did not really understand what the teacher wanted them to do and to express. That's why they remained quiet and did not respond back to the teacher).

Excerpt 43 demonstrates 'silence' expressed by some Thai students majoring in Political Science in 'Communicative English for Specific Purposes' class of NT3. In this passage, students in the class did not respond to NT3 after he was giving an instruction. Therefore, it could be interpreted that most of the students did not understand the teacher's teaching instruction which could result in the silence made by the students.

4.3.5.2 Students demonstrated 'helping hands' in Thai EFL classrooms

As Thai culture is based on the collective society culture, Thai people perceive or view their own group as being more important than themselves or an individual. Hence, there were a number of instances shown regarding an application of 'helping hands' between peers of the Thai students. There were 14 instances displayed as evidences in the classes of NL2, NT3, and NT4. Also, there were 7 instances found in NT2's classes, 4 instances occurred in NT3's lessons, and 3 references found in NT4's classes. There were no evidences of this concept appearing in NL1's classrooms. In NT2's lessons, the students mostly helped their

friends during the time he or she was struggling in their talks or giving a presentation. In other classes, the students helped their friends by telling them the correct answers when he or she could not reply or answer the teacher's questions. Other instances were: the students translated English phrases or sentences for their peers, discussed the possible answers, and repeated key words after the teacher's talk. Furthermore, it could be noticed that many examples or instances of 'helping hands' had emerged in NT2's classes because group works and group discussions were assigned in the classes more than in the others. An example of 'helping hands' by a Thai student is illustrated below;

Excerpt 44 : Illustration of the 'helping hands' aspect by a Thai student in lesson 2 of the British lecturer (NL2).

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T2:	Anything else? 55 seconds. 30 seconds singing.
S:	Ah…China have many population and people in China like…. [*grammatical problem]
S®:	Same cultural (He told his friend to say this phrase).
S:	China likes same Thai cultural… [*grammatical problem]

Excerpt 44 demonstrates the 'helping hands' aspect by a Thai student majoring in International Business in 'Introduction to International Business' class of NL2. In this passage, student(S) was struggling to continue giving a talk. Spontaneously, S® helped his friend by telling a phrase so that student(S) could carry on the presentation.

4.3.5.3 Students used ‘laughter’ instead of verbal communication in Thai EFL classrooms

There were 4 instances found regarding the use of laughter replacing the use of verbal communication as a response to the lecturer in the conversation. These instances were found only in NT4’s lessons. An example of the use of ‘laughter’ by a Thai student can be seen as follows;

Excerpt 45 : Illustration of ‘the use of laughter’ by a Thai student in lesson 3 of the female Thai lecturer (NT4).

Minute 18.30

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T4:	Why do you have to visit the temple: you said from 9 pm to 11 pm? ที่วัดมีอะไร (What can you do there at that time in the temple?)
S(80):	(Laughed).

Excerpt 45 demonstrates ‘the use of laughter’ by a Thai student majoring in Tourism in ‘English Conversation’ class of NT4. In this passage, S(80) was laughing as she realised her mistake when NT4 mentioned about it after her presentation. This student used laughter instead of verbal communication to accept her mistake she made in the English sentence.

4.3.5.4 Students teased or used jokes with their lecturer in Thai EFL classrooms

For the use of jokes, there were only 4 instances found in NT4's lessons and the jokes were spoken in Thai. It is known that NT4 used Thai and English interchangeably in class all the time, therefore the classrooms atmosphere could facilitate and make students feel more intimate and relaxed while responding or communicating with the lecturer. An example of the use of Thai jokes by a Thai student can be seen as follows;

Excerpt 46 : Illustration of 'a joke or teasing' by a Thai student in lesson 3 of the female Thai lecturer (NT4)

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
S(88):	หัวเราะเสียงดังเลย (You laughed out loud).
T4:	แกหัวเราะแบบกุลสตรีหรือหัวเราะแบบชั้นหละ (Did you laugh like a noble lady or do you laugh like me?)
S(w/c):	หัวเราะแบบอาจารย์คะ (I laugh like you, teacher) (A few students replied).
T4:	ขอบใจนะ (Thank you!) (The teacher was being sarcastic!).

Excerpt 46 demonstrates 'a joke or teasing' by a Thai student majoring in Tourism in 'English Conversation' class of NT4. In this excerpt, S(88) teased her lecturer by criticising the way NT4 laughed. When the teacher asked some students in the class about the way she laughed, a few students said that she laughed exactly the same as her teacher. Hence, NT4 only said "Thank you" to those students as she realised that they were teasing her.

4.3.5.5 Students ‘gave courage’ to their friend in Thai EFL classrooms

There were 2 instances found in NL2 and NT4 classes regarding the aspect. One instance was found in NL2’s class and another in NT4’s lesson. For the first evidence, some students cheered up their friend to calm him down prior to giving a presentation. The second was a student encouraged by a friend to be confident when answering a question in class. An example of a student giving courage to a friend can be seen as follows;

Excerpt 47 : Illustration of ‘giving courage by a Thai student in lesson 1 of the female Thai lecturer (NT4)

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
S(25):	Pass out…B คะ B
S(26):	มั่นใจ(Are you sure?)
S(25):	เป็นลมอะ (It means "to faint").
T4:	(Called a student) มั่นใจปะ (Are you sure?)
S(2):	มั่นใจนิดหน่อย (I am have just little confidence)
S®:	เฮ้ยมั่นใจดิเฮ้ย! (Ah! You need to be confident in your answer).
T4:	(Called upon a student) มั่นใจปะ (Are you sure?)

Excerpt 47 demonstrates ‘giving courage’ by a Thai student majoring in Political Science in ‘Communicative English for Specific Purposes’ class of NT4. In this excerpt, the lecturer asked the students if they could assure her about the answer. S(2) told NT4 that he was not too confident about his answer, whereas S® was confident about her answer. Moreover, S® cheered up her friend to have more confidence upon his answer.

4.3.5.6 Students ‘wanted to work as a group’ in Thai EFL classrooms

In the analysis, it was discovered that there was one instance illustrating a desire of Thai students who prefer to work as a group not as an individual. An example of the aspect is displayed as follows;

Excerpt 48 : Illustration of Thai students wanted to work as a group in lesson 2 of the female Thai lecturer (NT4).

Minute 23.00	
Incident:	Teacher proposed a project for students and asked if they wanted to do it individually or with their friends as a group).
T4:	เดี๋ยวครูจะให้ทำ OTOP (One Tambon, One Product campaign) เดี๋ยวเรามา list กันว่าจะได้จังหวัดไหนอยากทำเป็นหมูคณะหรือว่าอยากทำเดี่ยว(In a minute, let’s make a list about provinces that you would like to choose, do you want to do this project by yourself or with friends as a group?)
S(w/c):	หมู่คณะ (As a group). (The whole class said at the same time together and then they laughed).

Excerpt 48 demonstrates Thai students who wanted to work as a group in ‘Communicative English for Specific Purposes’ class of NT4. These students were majoring in Tourism. In this excerpt, the teacher queried her students in the whole class whether they would prefer to do an individual project or a group project. The students immediately told the teacher that they preferred to work in a group instead.

4.3.5.7 Students ‘teased or made fun of their friend in Thai EFL classrooms

There was only one instance which confirmed that Thai students teased or made fun of their friend after the teacher’s talk. This instance occurred in lesson 1 of NT4’s class. The example of the aspect can be viewed below;

Excerpt 49 : Illustration of Thai students teased or made fun of their friend in lesson 1 of the female Thai lecturer (NT4)

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T4:	เอ่ออันนี้ถ้าพูดกันตรงๆครูคิดว่าจะเป็นขั้นป่วยมากกว่านะ student(26)ไม่น่าจะต้องการทำหน้าให้เท่าเพื่อนข้างๆน่าจะอย่างนั้น (If we speak frankly, I think he is probably sick. I do not think that he wants to do a face surgery to look like a friend who is sitting next to him).
S(27):	คนไหนคะ(A female student). (Which one?)
T4:	(The teacher mentioned the name of a student) ถ้าไปฉีดน่าจะเชื่อ(If you had filler injection, I think I will believe me instead).
S(w/c):	Ha….ha…ha.. (One/ two student laughed).
S(28):	Ebola !

Excerpt 49 demonstrates an aspect of a Thai student teased or made fun of their friend in ‘Communicative English for Specific Purposes’ class of NT4. In this passage, S(28) teased his friend who was mentioned by the lecturer because he wore a mask.

4.3.6 Other aspects that emerged in the observations and audio recordings of classroom teachings.

Apart from Thai student cultural aspects identified in the analysis of observations and audio recordings of classroom teachings, other aspects were also found. Firstly was a cultural aspect about a specific word used to address Thai students by the Thai lecturer. Secondly was an issue of misunderstanding occurring in Thai EFL classrooms. The third aspect was related to the issues of Thai students and their low English proficiencies expressed whilst studying and communicating with their lecturers. These following topics can be demonstrated in a table below;

Table 4.8 : demonstrates other topics found in the analysis of observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings.

Topics	**Sources**	**References**
Cultural aspects and cultural issues occurred in the EFL classroom	4	(6) –found in NL1 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT4 lesson 1 ⇨ 3 references –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT4 lesson 2 ⇨ 1 reference
Misunderstanding occurred in Thai EFL classroom	4	(10)–found in NL2 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 3 references –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 5 references –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 1 reference
Issues of Thai students and their low English proficiencies	6	(16)–found in NL2 lesson 2 ⇨ 2 references –found in NL2 lesson 3 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT3 lesson 1 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT3 lesson 2 ⇨ 3 references –found in NT3 lesson 3 ⇨ 2 references –found in NT4 lesson 3 ⇨ 5 references

4.3.6.1 A cultural aspect on a word using to address Thai students in the classroom

In accordance with this table, another cultural aspect that occurred in this study was a specific word the female Thai lecturer used to address her students. A particular word that the teacher always used to address her students is 'ลูก' in Thai. This word means 'my son or my daughter' in English. The use of this particular word can be seen as a part of the cultural aspects which resembled a mother and child relationship. In order to close the gap between teacher and students the word 'ลูก' was being used by NT4 and for her students. An example of this cultural aspect is displayed in the following excerpt;

Excerpt 50 : Illustration of the use of the word 'ลูก'by the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in lesson 3.

Minute 31.36

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T4:	เหลือใครยังไม่ได้พูดไอ้นี่พูดแล้วอ่า**.....**ha…ha…ha (Laughed loudly and pointed to the students whom she wanted them to present).
S(w/c):	(Laughed).
T4:	เพราะฉะนั้นมาเลยลูก (Come on, my son or daughter!)

Excerpt 50 demonstrates the use of the word 'ลูก'by the female Thai lecturer (NT4) in 'English Conversation' class of NT4. In this passage, the teacher called upon a group of students to come up and present their role play. The group that was being called upon responded to the teacher very slowly. Therefore, NT4 needed to call this group of students again to come up in front of the class. The teacher used the

word ‘ลูก’to address these students in order to create more intimate atmosphere in the classroom.

4.3.6.2 Misunderstanding occurred in Thai EFL classrooms

There were 10 misunderstanding incidents occurring in NL2, NT3, and NT4’s lessons. Surprisingly, there were 8 instances found in NT3’s lessons and only one incident of misunderstanding found in NL2 and NT4’s class. Moreover, it was revealed that the majority of these Thai students misunderstood teachers’ instructions, questions, and the meaning of English sentences spoken by their teacher in the English lessons. The use of unsuitable or incorrect words and Thai pronunciation of English words or sentences by the Thai students could also cause misunderstanding between the teacher and students. An example of a misunderstanding incident which occurred in the classroom can be viewed below;

Excerpt 51 : Illustration of misunderstanding incident which occurred in lesson 2 of the male Thai lecturer (NT3).

Speaker	**Transcribed exchange**
T3:	You like that place, I know. I believe you. I’d like to go to Bangkok. So what you like to do there in Bangkok?
S(20):	Friday. *****(The student misunderstood the teacher’s question).
T3:	Friday ….ok. (He nearly laughed).

Excerpt 51 demonstrates a misunderstanding incident occurring in ‘Communicative English for Specific Purposes’ class of NT3. In this passage, S(20) who was a student majoring in Political Science had to answer NT3’s question about what he wanted to do in Bangkok. However, S(20)’s answer was not a proper one which could result from a lack of English language proficiency.

4.3.6.3 Issues of Thai students having low English proficiencies

According to the analysis, there were 16 instances related to Thai students' English proficiencies. One of the main problems found was the use of inappropriate or incorrect words, vocabulary and the use of incorrect structures of English sentences when giving a presentation and answering teachers' questions. The second main problem was Thai students lack of understanding of teacher's questions, instructions, and vocabulary meaning. These problems could create silence, especially from the Thai students in the classrooms. An example of Thai students demonstrating their low English proficiencies can be viewed below;

Excerpt 52 : Illustration of Thai students' English proficiencies in lesson 3 of the male Thai lecturer (NT3).

Minute 38.22

T2:	Three…two…one….ready?
S(a):	SawadeeKrab. Hello teacher. I come from group 3. Question is: what are the advantages and disadvantages of economic growth to a business. I think, don't have the advantage because recession and disadvantage are company sell…and company cannot sell product. Company….company

Excerpt 52 demonstrates low English proficiency of a Thai student majoring in Business Management in 'Introduction to Business' class of NL2. In this passage, S(a) was giving a presentation for his group. However, he made grammatically incorrect English sentences in his talk. This could point to the main problem being his low English proficiency.

4.3.7 Themes that emerged from classroom observations and audio recordings of classroom teachings

Whilst examining CCC(s) and CS(s) occurring in the data, two main or key themes emerged. The first key theme is Thai students' cultural features, and the second key theme is a lack of English competency or proficiency of Thai students. Within the first key theme, there are several sub–themes relevant to it. These sub–themes are: the use of silence in the classrooms in their communication and interaction with the lecturers, the use of 'mime' or nonverbal communication such as smiling, nodding face, shaking head instead of using verbal to provide an answer to their lecturers, the use of mumbling as a sign to show the lack of confidence and their concern of 'face–saving' and the use of the 'message abandonment' strategy as the result of students being afraid of giving wrong answers, constructing ungrammatical sentences and phrases. Moreover, sub–themes of the second key theme are the use of all CCC(s) and CS(s) strategies by these Thai students which underpins and points to the main problem of Thai students being their English language competence.

4.4 Summary of the classroom observation and audio recording analysis

In summary, the lecturer who applied most CS strategies and pedagogical strategies in the Thai EFL classroom was the male Thai lecturer (NT3)–nine strategies, followed by the American lecturer (NL1)–seven strategies, the female Thai lecturer (NT4)–seven strategies, and the British lecturer (NL2)–three strategies respectively. The nine strategies that NT3 applied in his classroom teachings are: 'approximation', 'language switch', 'mime', 'other repair', 'response confirm', 'response reject', 'eliciting or repeating sentences', 'the use of jokes', and 'the use of praise'. Moreover, it is found that NT3 frequently employed 'eliciting or repeating sentences', 'jokes', and 'praise' more than the other strategies. In other words, NT3 regularly applied pedagogical strategies as being the main strategies of his teachings. The nine strategies that NL1 applied

are: ‘circumlocution’, ‘language switch’, ‘mime’, ‘other repair’, ‘response confirm’, ‘eliciting or repeating sentences’, and ‘the use of praise’. Besides, ‘mime’ and ‘response confirm’ were the two CCC strategies that NL1 largely applied. The nine strategies applied by NT4 are: ‘language switch’, ‘mime’, ‘other repair’, ‘response confirm’, ‘teasing students’, ‘jokes’, and ‘praise’. Also, it is revealed that ‘language switch’ was mainly applied by NT4 or it is seen as her main CS strategy. Lastly, it is discovered that there were only three main cross cultural communication strategies applied by NL2 which are ‘language switch’, ‘mime’, and ‘response confirm’.

In accordance with the findings of teachers’ use of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies, it is also found that the Thai students who studied with NT3 applied most strategies (12 strategies) during their English studies. These twelve strategies are: ‘approximation’, ‘circumlocution’, ‘literal translation’, ‘language switch’, ‘appeal for assistance’, ‘mime’, ‘message abandonment’, ‘mumbling’, ‘response confirm’, ‘response reject’, ‘self–repair’, and ‘the use of fillers’. Furthermore, these students principally applied ‘approximation’, ‘language switch’, ‘response confirm’, and ‘response reject’ whilst communicating with their NT3. Though, NL1 applied many cross–cultural communication strategies in his lessons, his students only utilised four strategies in return. These four strategies are: ‘mime’, ‘topic avoidance’, ‘message abandonment’, and ‘mumbling’. Additionally, the students of NL1 largely applied ‘mime’ more than the other CS strategies. As it is perceived that NT4 applied a variety of strategies in her teachings, it can be found that her students also used different CS strategies in the lessons. These eleven strategies are: ‘approximation’, ‘literal translation’, ‘language switch’, ‘mime’, ‘topic avoidance’, ‘message abandonment’, ‘mumbling’, ‘response confirm’, ‘response reject’, ‘self–repair’, and ‘ the use of fillers’. It is revealed that NT4 students mainly applied ‘language switch’ and ‘response confirm’ as their main CS strategies due to the frequent use of ‘language switch’ by their lecturer in the teaching class. Astonishingly, the students of NL2 had applied eleven cross–cultural communication strategies when communicating and interacting with this British lecturer despite the fact that NL2 used only 3 strategies in his teaching

lessons. These eleven strategies are: ‘approximation’, ‘literal translation’, ‘language switching’, ‘mime’, ‘topic avoidance’, ‘message abandonment’, ‘mumbling’, ‘other repetition’, ‘response confirm’, ‘response reject’, and ‘the use of fillers’. There are four strategies which NL2’s students largely applied when communicating with their lecturer– ‘language switch’, ‘mime’, ‘message abandonment’, and ‘response confirm’.

In order to answer the research question 1, CCC(s) which were applied in the Thai EFL classrooms combine Tarone (1977; 1983), Willems(1987), and Dörnyei and Scott’s (1995a, 1995b)’s CS taxonomies as well as the pedagogical strategies. These strategies are ‘circumlocution’, ‘language switch’, ‘mime’, ‘other repair’, ‘response confirm’, ‘eliciting or repeating sentences’, and ‘the use of praise’. Therefore, the two significant reasons arsing to answer the second research question are in accordance with the main themes emerging from the analysis of classroom observations and the audio recordings of the classroom teachings: Thai students’ cultural features and their low English proficiencies. Having received the findings from classroom observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings, factors contributing to effective communication between native English lecturers and Thai students are derived from several factors. To illustrate, the application of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies by teachers in the Thai EFL classrooms, teachers’ understanding of Thai students cultural aspects or features and their English language competences, group works assigned in the English lessons, teaching method to approach students– e.g. how to get the students to speak up, the size of classrooms or the number of students per class, characteristics of teachers to create a pleasant teaching–learning classroom atmosphere and teachers’ attitudes toward Thai students and their English learning. Last but not least, this is a light touch analysis of thick data according to Stenhouse (1978), and it provides certain themes. Therefore, it needs the application of secondary analysis to provide deeper insights into the three main research questions.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The aim of this chapter is to argue or discuss and appraise the findings from the empirical data analysis based on activity theory as well as the literature review. This chapter manifests how the findings from different methods have complemented one another. Moreover, it seeks to clarify the overall research findings, to provide answers for the main research questions. Thus, this chapter is seen as the research findings commentary or criticism. That is, it is not a recapitulation of those findings discussed in chapter 4. The findings are discussed in the key themes that emerged from the analysis of research methods. The first key theme is Thai students' cultural aspects or features. The second key theme is low English proficiencies of Thai students which was an overlapped theme that emerged from the interviews of teachers, the classroom observations and the audio recordings of the classroom teachings. Apart from that, other themes which are discussed in this chapter are teacher characteristics and personalities according to their pedagogical skills, students' confidence and lack of confidence, nonverbal communication and the use of repetition as a part of CCC(s) in the classroom by the teachers. Moreover, the focus of discussion is focussed in order to answer the research questions established at the start of this study. Additionally, for validity, trustworthiness, and rigour of the research methods in this study, the following tables (see table 5.1) summarise similarities, differences of CCC(s), and CS(s) applied by four lecturers and Thai students in the real classroom settings are demonstrated respectively;

Table 5.1 : Similarities and differences of CCC(s), CS(s), and pedagogical strategies employed by the Thai students in the three research methods (teacher–student interviews, classroom observations and audio recordings of classroom teachings)

Group of students	The frequent used CCC(s) or CS(s) in classroom observations	Similar strategies found amongst the three research methods	Different strategies found in the three research methods
Students of NL1	Mime	Mime	– Topic avoidance – Message abandonment – Mumbling – Simple words/synonyms – Using online dictionary in the smartphone – Transliteration – Asking friend for help
Students of NL2	– Language switch – Message abandonment – Response confirm	– Approximation – Mime – Literal translation	– Language switch – Topic avoidance – Message abandonment – Mumbling – Other repetition – Response confirm – Response reject – Use of fillers
Students of NT3	– Approximation – Language switch – Response confirm – Response reject	– Approximation – Circumlocution – Language switch – Asking friend for assistance / appeal for assistance – Mime	– Literal translation –Message abandonment – Mumbling – Response confirm – Response reject – Self–repair – The use of fillers
Students of NT4	– Language switch – Response confirm	– Approximation – Language switch – Mime	– Circumlocution – Asking friend for assistance – Literal translation – Topic avoidance – Message abandonment – Mumbling – Response confirm – Response reject – Self–repair – The use of fillers

Table 5.2 ： Similarities and differences of CCC(s) and CS(s) employed by the four lecturers in three research methods (teacher–student interviews, classroom observations and audio recording of classroom teachings)

Lecturers	**The most frequent used CCC(s), CS(s), pedagogical strategies in classroom observation**	**Similar strategies found amongst the three research methods**	**Different strategies found in the three research methods**
NL1	– Mime – Response confirm	– Speaking slowly, clearly unlike a native English speaker – Mime	– Using aids (Google Translate, Thai dictionary on the smartphone) – Circumlocution – Language switch – Other repair – Response confirm – Eliciting and repeating sentences – Using praise
NL2	None	– Speaking slower sometimes – Expressing hand gestures – Expressing facial gestures	– Language switch – Mime / nonverbal communication – Response confirm – Speaking slower – Repeating sentences – Changing tones of voice, simplifying questions and words used in lectures.
NT3	– Eliciting or repeating sentences/ phrases – Using jokes in EFL class – Using praise	– Eliciting and repeating sentences – Making compliments or using praise to their students – Using jokes or sense of humour	– Simplifying sentences – Using aids (YouTube, music video, pictures on internet) – Approximation – Language switch – Mime

Lecturers	The most frequent used CCC(s), CS(s), pedagogical strategies in classroom observation	Similar strategies found amongst the three research methods	Different strategies found in the three research methods
			– Other repair – Response confirm – Response reject
NT4	– Language switch	– language switch	– Mime – other repair – Response confirm – Teasing students – Using jokes – Using praise

5.1 Similarities and differences of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies emerged from the interviews, classroom observations and audio recording of classroom teachings of the four teachers

5.1.1 A comparison of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies of the American lecturer (NL1)

Prior to referring to discussing the key themes emerging from the analysis of this study, it is necessary to discuss the similarities and differences of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies used by the four teachers. According to the American lecturer NL1, he admitted in the interview that his main CCC(s) applied in the classrooms were speaking slowly and clearly, not like a native English speaker, using aids such as Google Translate, a Thai dictionary on the smartphone. In addition, his students recognised that NL1 used mime, body gestures and aids whilst teaching in the classroom. In fact, it can be seen that some of the cross–cultural communication strategies that emerged in the observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings resemble those strategies found in the interview of this American teacher. These strategies are speaking slowly and clearly and the use of ‘mime’. In the real classroom lessons, NL1 employed seven

strategies which comprised of ‘circumlocution’, ‘language switch’, ‘mime’, ‘other repair’, ‘response confirm’, ‘eliciting and repeating sentences’, and ‘praise’ of his students. Besides, the main CCC(s) which were utilised largely by NL1 in the lessons are ‘mime’, ‘response confirm’ apart from speaking slowly, clearly and ‘eliciting or repeating sentences’. This can be interpreted that the American lecturer’s CCC(s) are mostly based on his pedagogical skills rather than the use of Tarone’s (1977; 1983), Willems’s (1987), and Dörnyei and Scott’s (1995a, 1995b) CS taxonomies in order to try to get the messages across or to communicate effectively with his students.

5.1.2 Silence occurred in the native English lecturers’ classes

Silences occurred in all classes of the four lecturers, but there were incidents of silence taking place in NL1’s classrooms more than in NL2’s lessons in a comparison after the application of CCC(s). This suggests that the use of these cross–cultural communication strategies are not sufficient to produce effective communication between the native English lecturers and Thai students especially in NL1’s lessons. Hence, the expression of silences by a number of Thai students in NL1’s lessons are consistent with Hofstede’s cultural dimensions–individualism versus collectivism. According to Hofstede, Thailand is categorised as a collectivist country. Therefore, Thai people have a sense of belonging to their own group. In addition, social harmony is considered a belief and practice in Thai society. In other words, Thai people try to avoid having personal conflict with others (see section 2.3.1.5 in chapter 2). As a result, silences demonstrated by the students in the Thai EFL classroom particularly in NL1’s classes are considered examples of Thai students trying to avoid having conflicts or arguments with their lecturer. In accordance with Hofstede (1991), students raised in the collectivistic culture such as in Thailand would hesitate to speak up when lacking an approval, support and encouragement from their own group or a group they belong to. Apaibanditkul (2006) confirms that students brought up in collectivist cultures are less likely to ask questions openly in class. Hofstede (2010) demonstrates that in a

high power distance culture like Thailand, an offence in a conversation or a talk can result in ‘losing face’. These are reasons why silences frequently occurred in all of these EFL classes of the four lecturers. For the native English teachers, silences occurring amongst the Thai students in their classes are a major concern that they need to overcome.

5.1.3 A comparison of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies of the British lecturer (NL2)

Analysis discussed in the previous chapter demonstrated that that the British lecturer was the only lecturer who applied the least CCC(s) in his classroom lessons amongst the four lecturers. These three strategies he used found in the observations and audio recording of his classroom teachings are ‘language switch’, ‘mime’ and ‘response confirm’ and these strategies are viewed as the main strategies of his teachings. In the interview, he claimed that he tried to speak slower when he found that the students demonstrated confusion in class. He also used repetition of phrases and sentences, changed tones of voice, simplified questions and lectures as parts of his teaching strategies. NL2’s interview answers partly corresponded with those of his students replies. Similarly, some of his students asserted that this British lecturer started speaking slower in class and simplified his questions, lectures for the students. Owing to the responses of NL2’s students, the application of gestures such as hand gestures, facial expressions were also recognised in his lessons. Thus, it can be said that the similarity of CCC(s) found in the interview, observation and audio recording of NL2 is the use of ‘mime’ or nonverbal communication. Despite the fact that NL2 has less experiences of teaching English in Business to the Thai students plus he hardly spoke Thai in the lessons, the use of mime or nonverbal communication played a significant role in supporting delivery to his students.

5.1.4 A comparison of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies of the male Thai lecturer (NT3)

It is perceived that NT3 used the most communication strategies amongst the four lecturers. He applied nine strategies in his teachings which are: 'approximation', 'language switch', 'mime', 'other repair', 'response confirm', 'response reject', 'eliciting and repeating sentences', 'joke', and 'praise'. In the interview, this male Thai lecturer claimed that he applied the five main pedagogical strategies in his classroom teachings and those strategies are, for example, repeating sentences or the use of repetition, simplifying sentences, making compliments to students, using aids such as YouTube music video, pictures on the internet and using jokes or sense of humour while emphasising keywords and vocabulary in the lessons. This can be seen that NT3's answers regarding CS strategies taken from the interview partly corresponded with the observations and audio recordings of his classroom teachings. That is, the three overlapping pedagogical strategies revealed by NT3 in data collected through the three research methods are: 'repeating sentences', 'making compliments to students', and 'using jokes'. As discussed in chapter 4, the students who studied with NT3 also applied a large number of CS strategies (eleven strategies) when communicating with their lecturer The number of misunderstandings occuring in Thai EFL classrooms were considered the greatest among those occurred in NL2 and NT4 lessons, but having considered Thai students' issue of low English proficiencies, the number of incidents which emerged from NT3's lessons and his students were the highest, compared to the other classes of NL2 and NT4.

5.1.4.1 Low English proficiency of Thai students

Many Thai students in this study accepted that they have encountered issues or problems communicating, delivering their intended thoughts, ideas, opinions and messages to their lecturers. One of the dominant problems is lack of English competence or proficiency. As suggested in Chapter 3, many students were aware of their language proficiency problems. Some students realised that they lacked vocabulary competence, some of them confessed that they misunderstood their

teacher's talks, instructions, and questions. Meanwhile, some of them had a problem comprehending meanings of English, phrases sentences spoken by their lecturers. Besides, some students asserted that their teacher's accent; especially the British lecturer was difficult to understand and listen to. Moreover, a number of students affirmed that they made mistakes and errors during the time of answering the teacher's questions and in their presentations as seen in the excerpts given in the previous chapter. Hence, the utilisation of CCC(s), CS(s) portrayed or expressed by these target Thai students is also seen as the 'cultural artefacts' or tools enabling them to maintain the conversation and deliver intended message as well as to get their messages across to the lecturers. These problems are in line with Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009)'s statement. That is, students who have low English proficiency have encountered issues of communication in English. The two authorities claim that a cause of this issue might not only come from a lack of basic grammar or vocabulary. This issue might also derive from deficiency in the utilisation of proper or suitable communication strategies. Therefore, this issue will be further discussed later in the section of themes related to this study.

5.1.5 A comparison of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies amongst three research methods used by the female Thai lecturer (NT4)

For the female Thai lecturer, the seven CS strategies appeared in the classroom observations and the audio recordings of her classroom teachings. These seven strategies are: 'language switch', 'mime', 'other repair', 'response confirm', 'teasing students', 'jokes', and 'praise'. NL4 claimed in her interview that she applied two main strategies in her teaching which are comprised of: getting students to repeat sentences, and language switch. Additionally, the students who studied in her classes confirmed that she also used aids such as internet and pictures from the internet as well as story–telling from her experiences as a part of her teaching strategies. In comparison, only one strategy was identical amongst the three research methods which is 'language switch'. Due to a variety of CS(s) and pedagogical strategies used by NT4 in the teaching lessons, this assisted her

students to generate and express a large number of CS strategies emerged in their classroom communication. However, the frequent use of 'language switch' strategy by NT4 in her lessons could close down options of the students in applying more effective CS strategies.

5.2 Similarities and differences of CCC(s) and CS(s) strategies that emerged from the interviews, classroom observations and audio recordings of classroom teachings of Thai students.

5.2.1 A comparison of CCC(s) amongst three research methods which were applied by the Thai students of the American lecturer (NL1)

It is seen in the classroom observation and audio recordings of classroom teachings that the students of NL1 applied four CS strategies whilst communicating and interacting with their lecturer. The four CS strategies are composed of 'mime', 'topic avoidance', 'message abandonment', and 'mumbling'. Having interviewed some students of this American lecturer, it was revealed that they utilised several communication strategies, for example; simple words or synonyms especially when they were encountering misunderstanding which occurred in the lectures or in the teacher's talks. They also accepted that the use of online dictionary in their smartphone to look up unknown vocabulary is considered significant for these groups of students. Moreover, body gestures, hand gestures and actions were claimed by the students for their usage in the classroom. Besides, the use of transliteration and asking friends for help were told to have been applied by the students in their study lessons. In addition, the American teacher argued that nonverbal communication or the use of 'mime' was rarely applied by these group of students. Hence, the only resemblance CCC strategy found amongst these three research methods is 'mime'. Interestingly, what NL1 said about the use of 'mime' by his students is discordant or contradictory to the observation and the audio recordings of classroom teachings.

5.2.2 A comparison of CCC(s) amongst three research methods which were applied by the Thai students of the British lecturer (NL2)

Having compared the students of NL1, NT3, and NT4 to the students of NL2, it is found that the students of NL2 largely utilised a range of CCC(s) with their lecturer. As discussed in chapter 4, the application of their strategies in the classroom observation and audio recordings are composed of : 'approximation', 'literal translation', 'language switch', 'mime', 'topic avoidance', 'message abandonment', 'mumbling', 'other repetition', 'response confirm', 'response reject', and 'the use of fillers'. In the student interviews, the majority of the students had claimed that five cross–cultural communication strategies applied in the classroom consisted of: body gestures, hand gestures, actions, the use of online dictionary on the smartphone, transliteration, asking friends for assistance, and the use of easy or simply vocabulary or synonyms. It is noticed that these five strategies revealed by NL2's students are like those CS strategies affirmed by the majority of NL1's students in their interviews. As discussed in the previous chapter, the use of 'mime' or nonverbal communication was considered the main CCC(s) of these students in order to deliver their intended messages. In accordance with the native English teacher's perspectives, the application of nonverbal communication or mime by their students was rarely seen in the classroom teachings. However, the native English lecturers' answers taken from the interviews and the findings identified from the analysis of observations and audio recordings are contradictory. As stated by the American lecturer and the British lecturer in the interviews, a result of sudden give–up or rejection of student talks could bring about the less frequent use of nonverbal communication or mime in the Thai EFL classrooms. Therefore, the fact that 'message abandonment' was mainly used by these groups of students may reflect some factors preventing students from speaking up in class. Moreover, the use of 'mime' or nonverbal communication which are smiling, nodding face, shaking head, raising hands, making different facial expressions, and expressing hand gestures could imply several reasons for employing them. One of the reasons is to avoid making mistakes or 'loss of face'. Thus, the use of nonverbal communication or mime is seen as a low–risk strategy by Thai students during the time of delivering their

thoughts to the lecturer and as an attempt to solve the communication breakdowns.

5.2.3 A comparison of CS(s) amongst three research methods which were applied by the Thai students of the male Thai lecturer (NT3)

In the interviews, the students of NT3 accepted that they utilised a range of CS(s) when communicating or interacting with their lecturer. There are five main communication strategies which had been revealed to be utilised by the students which are: the use of simple vocabulary or synonyms, the use of non–linguistic means such as body gestures, actions, hand gestures, facial expressions, 'circumlocution', 'language switch', and asking friends for assistance. The male Thai lecturer also affirmed in his interview that the use of the lattermost CS strategy or asking friends for assistance was largely applied by these groups of students. In real classroom settings, these Thai students employed a variety of CSs which are comprised of these following strategies: 'approximation', 'circumlocution', 'literal translation', 'language switch', 'appeal for assistance', 'message abandonment', 'mumbling', 'response confirm', 'response reject', 'self–repair', 'the use of fillers', and 'mime'. In comparison, three CS strategies which are: 'circumlocution', 'language switch', and 'mime' are the overlap strategies emerging from the interview, observation and audio recording of classroom teaching. Having discussed in chapter 3, these groups of students applied most CS strategies (twelve strategies) compared to the other students of NL1, NL2, and NT4.Thus, it can be accounted that the more or the variety of CS strategies applied by the lecturer, the more CS strategies the students can generate or express in classroom talks or conversation with the lecturer. The various utilisation of CS strategies applied by these groups of Thai students is in accordance with Vygotsky (1978)'s sociocultural theory. As suggested by Vygotsky (1978) human beings possess the ability to utilise symbols or tools, in particular for learning language. In this case CS strategies are seen as the cultural artefacts or tools that could help students to significantly connect to their teacher.

Besides, these strategies also recompense the gaps in English proficiency of the Thai students so that they are able to continue or maintain their talks or conversations with their lecturers.

5.2.4 A comparison of CS(s) amongst three research methods which were applied by the Thai students of the female Thai lecturer (NT4)

The students of NT4 said that in the interviews, the application of CS strategies are comprised of five strategies: 'circumlocution', 'language switch', the use of simple vocabulary and synonyms, asking friends for help, and the use of non–linguistic means such as hand gestures, body gestures, actions, and facial expressions. In addition, the female lecturer suggested in her interview that these groups of students also utilised aids such as 'Google Translate' to help them understand vocabulary or what the teacher said in the lecture. Analysis of the classroom observations and audio recordings of NT4's classroom teachings revealed that the students of NT4 employed eleven communication strategies in order to help them deliver their thoughts to the lecturer, these CS strategies were– 'approximation', 'literal translation', 'language switch', 'topic avoidance', 'message abandonment', 'mumbling', 'response confirm', 'response reject', 'self–repair', 'the use of fillers', and 'mime'. Having compared the application of CS strategies of the students in the interviews, observations, and audio recordings of classroom teachings, the only two strategies which overlap amongst the three research methods are 'approximation' and 'mime'. As has been discussed earlier, the female Thai lecturer used 'language switch' for the main CS strategy in her classroom teachings. As a result, students' choices of CS strategies were influenced by the use of NT4's strategy which is the 'language switch'. However, the two CS strategies overlapping amongst the main research methods are contradictory to the use of communication strategies seen in reality or the classroom teachings.

5.3 Successful CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies recommended to be applied for Thai students and lecturers in other EFL classrooms

Table 5.3 : A demonstration of the successful CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies applied by Thai students and lecturers in Thai EFL classroom observations.

Group of students	**The successful CCC(s) or CS(s) used by Thai students**	**Lecturers**	**The successful CCC(s), CS(s), pedagogical strategies applied by lecturers**
Students of NL1	Mime (+)	**NL1**	– Mime (+) – Response confirm (+) – Speaking slowly and clearly unlike a native English speaker (+)
Students of NL2	– Language switch (+) – Message abandonment (-) – Response confirm (+)	**NL2**	None
Students of NT3	– Approximation (+) – Language switch (+/ -) – Response confirm (+) – Response reject (-)	**NT3**	– Eliciting and repeating sentences (+) – Making compliments or using praise to their students (+) – Using jokes or sense of humour (+)
Students of NT4	– Language switch (-) – Response confirm (+/-)	**NT4**	– Language switch (+/-)

Notice: (+) is referred to positive strategies, meanwhile (-) is referred to negative strategies.

Table 5.4 : The recommended CCC(s) and CS(s) arising from critical analysis of the data for Thai students, native English lecturers and Thai lecturers as improvement of teacher–student communication in the EFL classroom.

Suggested CCC(s) and CS(s) to be applied: for Thai students in the EFL classroom	**Suggested CCC(s) and CS(s) to be applied: for teachers of EFL classroom**
– Mime (+) – Approximation (+) – Response confirm (+) – Language switch (+/-)	– Mime (+) – Language switch (+/-) – Response confirm (+) – Speaking slowly and clearly unlike a native English speaker (+) – Eliciting and repeating phrases or sentences (+) – Using complimentary words or using praise (+) – Using jokes or sense of humour (+)

Notice: (+) is referred to positive strategies, meanwhile (-) is referred to negative strategies.

Having assessed the frequency of use of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies appearing in the Thai EFL classroom observations, it was concluded that successful CCC(s) and CS(s) applied by Thai students mostly come from Tarone's CS taxonomies: the use of 'mime', 'language switch', 'approximation', 'message abandonment', 'response confirm', and 'response reject'. However, the application of 'message abandonment' and 'response reject' strategies would not be recommended for further use as they prevented students from engaging in the classroom talks with lecturers. Besides, these two strategies are considered negative CS(s) as presented in the above table. Additionally, a combination of Tarone's CS taxonomies and pedagogical strategies applied by the lecturers in the

Thai EFL classrooms resulted in the most successful CCC(s) and CS(s) to elicit CCC(s) from their Thai students, reduced or decreased communication breakdowns as well as closing the gap when Thai students lacked linguistic resources. To illustrate, the use of 'mime', 'response confirm' and 'language switch' are perceived as positive strategies. These strategies also represent Tarone's CS taxonomies; meanwhile the other pedagogical strategies–speaking slowly and clearly, eliciting or repeating phrases or sentences, using compliments or praise and jokes to their students are viewed as positive and simple pedagogical strategies that could help maintain classroom conversation, boost and support students' confidence in speaking English with their lecturer in the EFL lessons. However, language switch can be considered either a positive or negative strategy which will depend on users and contexts. For example, a language switch strategy can be the positive strategy for native English lecturers whenever he or she encounters difficulties communicating with the low proficiency students. For Thai lecturers, the use of language switch can be considered either a positive strategy or negative strategy due to English language level of students' proficiencies and classroom teaching contexts. Thai students who apply language switch as the negative strategy may prevent them from trying English synonyms or utilising other CSs or CCCs at the time of conveying messages to their lecturers. Therefore, table 5.4 summarises recommended CCCs, CSs and pedagogical strategies for Thai students, native English lecturers, and Thai lecturers in other Universities and colleges to be applied for the improvement of communication and interaction amongst teachers and students especially in the EFL classroom contexts.

5.4 The discussion of main themes that emerged in this study

5.4.1 Thai students' cultural aspects or features

There are several features of Thai students which appeared in the classroom observations, for example; silences, less participation or engagement in the classroom talks, group work preference, being passive learners–(e.g. speak–up avoidance), asking friends for assistance, including not making queries or questions to their lecturers in the EFL classes. These features of the Thai students in the study are derived from their cultural aspects which could prevent them from utilising the appropriate and effective CCC(s) and CS(s) whilst communicating with their lecturer. Hence, the expression of silences which occurred in the Thai EFL classrooms by these target Thai students can be described by Hofstede's cultural dimensions. According to Hofstede (2010)'s cultural dimension on power distance index. Thailand is viewed as a country which has a large degree of 'power distance' or PD compared to the United Kingdom and the United States. As stated by Hofstede (2010), the lower power distance index countries such as the United States and the United Kingdom's communication approach is participative, direct and informal. In contrast, the communication approach of a country which has higher power distance index can be the opposite. Thus, students' various verbal and nonverbal communication such as a 'Yes', nodding face, and smiling that appeared in the Thai EFL classrooms might not always refer to an agreement or an acceptance. These expressions can be accounted as a 'response confirm' strategy that Thai students applied in order to prevent them from feeling embarrassed in front of their own group lessening while the sense of 'losing face'.

Furthermore, less participation or engagement in classroom talks as well as acts of speak–up avoidance of the Thai students in the classrooms are in line with masculinity versus femininity cultural dimension index explained by Hofstede (2010). The literature review analysis in chapter 2 on the masculinity versus femininity cultural dimension index revealed that Thailand is considered a femininity country. Therefore, Thai people have great concern about what other

people might think and talk about them. That is, the value of standing out from the crowd is not admirable or commendable in a feminine society such as in Thai society. With this perception rooted in Thai society, the acts of speak–up avoidance leading to less voluntary, participation or engagement of Thai students in the EFL classrooms is considered a problematic concern especially for all lecturers who are teaching English as an EFL subject to Thai undergraduate students. Thai people's characteristics, particularly having non–assertive and non–dominant features or attributes, in other words, Thai students do not like to truly reveal their own ideas or opinions as much as they should do, could become an obstacle for Thai students to cross culturally communicate effectively with their lecturers. Moreover, these attributes of Thai students not only close up their options in utilising a variety of efficient CCC(s) or CS(s) but they could interrupt and slow down the flow of classroom teaching and learning. Besides, other personal traits of the Thai students such as asking a friend for assistance and not making queries or asking questions to their lecturers in the classrooms exhibit the value of 'social hierarchy' underlying in Thai classroom culture as stated by Boonnuch (2012). In addition, Kaeokallaya (2006)'s statement confirms that elders like teachers are not to be questioned or challenged in the Thai culture and this corresponds to the Thai students' behaviours demonstrated in the classroom observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings in this study particularly in the form of students' silence in the classroom.

5.4.2 Low English proficiency

Analysis of interviews, the classroom observations, and audio recordings of classroom teachings, revealed that a number of Thai students had mentioned their low English proficiency whilst communicating or interacting with their lecturer in the EFL classroom. Therefore, it was seen in the classroom observations that many Thai students often made mistakes or errors using inappropriate vocabulary during the time of constructing phrases or sentences in English in order to try to communicate with the lecturers. Other main problems of Thai students apart from

the low English proficiency are: the lack of response to the lecturers' instructions, questions, and the low English vocabulary competence. According to Kaeokallaya (2006) and Boonnuch (2012), the deeply rooted hierarchical system in Thailand as well as the status of teacher and student in Thai society have impacted significantly on Thai students' speak–up habits or behaviours in the English language classroom. It can be said that the lack of creative thinking and the lack of response of the vast majority of Thai students in this study were demonstrated in the forms of CS strategies use such as 'topic avoidance', and 'message abandonment'. Besides, silences occurred in the classroom manifest the lack of response of the Thai students in EFL classrooms which could result from Thailand's traditional–based educational system. Moreover, other major problems concerning the low English language proficiencies of Thai students mentioned above may come from the infirmness of English language teaching and learning since secondary school and Thai students' English learning–'negative habits or features'. Analysis of data from the majority of Thai students in the interviews revealed other themes; challenge, shyness, face issue, attitudes of learning English, a problem understanding English or British accent, silence in classroom, student motivation, negative learning characteristics of Thai students, their enthusiastic in learning English, Thai teaching–learning system and lack of stimulation in speaking up in the classroom. Therefore, the findings from the analysis ofthe three main research methods confirm Metcalfe and Noom–Ura (2013)'s statement that there are several reasons behind the lack of linguistic and communicative proficiency of Thai students. To sum up, it can be viewed that the key theme–'the low English language proficiency of Thai student' is considered a dominant factor which provides an impact on the effectiveness of Thai students' communication in the EFL classrooms.

5.4.2.1 The Thai educational system and its relation to the low English language proficiency of Thai students.

According to Kirkpatrick (2012), a lack of chance to practise speaking English outside and inside the classroom can be a factor contributing to the English language deficiency problem. Hence, this statement corresponds with the answer

received from a Thai student (S1)–a 2nd year student majoring in Public Health of the American lecturer NL1 regarding a lack of chance to speak English with the native English lecturers inside and outside the classroom since the primary and secondary school. In addition, this student admitted that English pronunciation taught to the majority of Thai students in primary and secondary school was different from that taught by the native English lecturer at University level. This brings in a question about English skills of teachers especially at primary and secondary level. This is in line with Kirkpatrick (2012) who suggested that the main issues of Thai education and English teaching in Thailand includes teaching methods, teacher training, movement from traditional Buddhist values and teacher skill level. As mentioned by Hallinger and Kantamara (2000), the overcrowded classroom size at tertiary level could be a part of the issue of teaching and learning English effectively. Having observed EFL classrooms in this study, it was found that the number of students ranging from 15 to 85 students per class could directly affect the English learning habits of Thai students. Moreover, the overcrowded classrooms could provide difficulty for the lecturers to closely interact and apply group works or tasks to their students within each lesson. As discussed earlier, some Thai students have encountered low vocabulary proficiency in English, this may result from a common path of learning–rote learning. Rote learning has been rooted in the Thai educational system for a long time. Thai students have been taught to repeat vocabulary spoken by the lecturers and memorise the meaning and spelling of words (Witte (2000) as cited in Kirkpatrick (2012)). According to Witte (2000) as cited in Kirkpatrick (2012), this type of learning is perceived asa passive learning strategy due to a lack of real–life application of vocabulary. Additionally, a result of Thai students being afraid of expressing their opinions, thoughts or ideas in class also come from a lack of competency with vocabulary.

5.4.3 Teacher characteristics and personalities according to their pedagogical skills

5.4.3.1 Teachers' senses of humour

As seen in the different classroom observations of the four lecturers, each lecturer has his or her own personality whilst teaching. The majority of the students as participants in this study stated that their lecturers were friendly and helpful. Besides, the native English lecturers and Thai lecturers applied various pedagogical strategies in their teaching lessons. There were instances or evidences in the classroom observations that these lecturers used sense of humour to be part of their pedagogical skills or strategies in order to enable their students to feel more relaxed or to feel at ease in the classrooms. In chapter 4, teachers' characteristics and personalities could be seen through the use of cross–cultural communication strategies especially through their pedagogical skills. To illustrate, the male Thai lecturer (NT3) and the female Thai lecturer (NT4) were the only ones who frequently applied jokes or senses of humour in their teaching lessons. In accordance with sociocultural theory, the main theoretical framework of this study which was introduced by Russian psychologist L.S. Vygotsky and his associates, human's ability for feeling, thinking, communicating and acting vitally depend upon the artefacts and practices which are developed through time with specific cultures. Hence, it can be interpreted that each lecturer's perceptions including their thoughts, communication, and actions in their classroom teaching lessons are also derived or developed from their practices and the use of English language through time within a specific culture–Thai culture. Showing a great understanding of Thai culture and the nature of Thai students, the use of jokes or sense of humour were selected by the two Thai lecturers to play an important role in creating a pleasant atmosphere for the Thai students. The application of jokes, sense of humour in the Thai EFL classroom and their benefits are in line with Thai students' interview statements. That is, the majority of the Thai students or interviewees admitted that the use of jokes in the classroom assist them to be able to memorise vocabulary easily and help reduce tension during the time of studies.

5.4.3.2 Teachers' use of praise

The use of praise amongst the American lecturer (NL1), the male Thai lecturer (NT3), and the female Thai lecturer (NT4) with their students was largely seen in the classroom observations and video recordings of classroom teachings. The use of complimentary words or praising such as 'good', 'well done', 'excellent', 'perfect' from the lecturers not only made the students feel good when communicating or answering but these words also helped boost confidence in the Thai students. Having perceived that Thailand is considered a high power distance culture, therefore, Thai students have been taught to pay respect to older people. Moreover, Thai students have been taught not to argue and avoid having conflicts with people who are older than them such as parents and teachers. Hence, this traditional concept has stopped or closed up opportunities for the vast majority of Thai students to confidently express their thoughts, opinions, ideas in the classrooms publicly.

5.4.3.3 Approaching students

According to the interviews of the Thai students and classroom observations, teachers approaches to the students in the EFL classrooms whilst doing group or pair works or tasks could open more chances for the students to interact, talk, express their ideas, opinions, and thoughts to their lecturers as well as to facilitate the students who were shy to build more confidence of speaking up in the classroom. It could be seen in chapter 4 that the male Thai lecturers (NT3) and the British lecturer (NL2) are the two lecturers who conducted more pair and group works in their lessons. As a consequence, the application of the frequent pair and group works in the EFL classrooms not only support the use of CCC(s) and CS(s) by Thai students but also enhance the use of these tools to close the gap especially in the low proficiency with vocabulary and other low proficiency issues of the Thai students while communicating with their lecturers. Each lecturer might approach their students differently and in accordance with their style of teaching, the number of students per class or the classroom size and the nature of that particular English courses or lessons. To illustrate, the British lecturer (NL2) and

the male Thai lecturer (NT3) chose to approach their students when providing the pair or group works in the classrooms and they preferred to deal with these students one by one in order to check their understanding of the lesson learned at the time. The acts of approaching students by NL2 and NT3 somehow contrast with Hofstede (1991)'s statement. Hofstede (1991) claim that teachers in collectivist cultures also deal with their students in what is called an 'in–group', but do not deal with them one by one or individually. NT3 reported in his interview that he used to study in the UK for a certain period, this may have influenced his teaching practice through adaptation of the Western teaching approach into the Thai EFL classrooms. Contrastingly, the American lecturer (NL1) preferred to deal with his students as an 'in–group' more than individual student as demonstrated in the classroom observations. This might be a result of the large classroom size that made it difficult for NL1 to conduct the group works or pair works in his classrooms and to approach the students individually.

5.4.4 Confidence and lack of confidence of Thai students

Many Thai participants or interviewees reported that an increase of confidence can be stimulated and encouraged by their lecturers. These students also claimed that peer pressure, shyness, and face–losing are the factors that could prevent or obstruct them from speaking up with confidence in the EFL classrooms. As mentioned earlier by Hofstede (1991), teachers in collectivistic cultures prefer to deal with their students as an 'in–group'. This might result from students' peer pressure. Hofstede (1991) comments that students who come from collectivist cultures like Thailand think of themselves as being a part of the group. Therefore, they hesitate to speak up if they lack approval, support and encouragement from the group to which they belong. In accordance with the interviews of the students, some students gave high importance on the value of 'face' or 'face–maintaining'. Apart from being afraid of losing face when answering questions or responding to teachers' conversation, Thai students were afraid of being teased by other friends in the classroom if they made mistakes or errors in response to the lecturer.

Corresponding with Engeström's activity theory, language is viewed as a mediated tool to enable learners to achieve their goal in communication. Thus, it is not surprising to see that many students applied message abandonment', 'topic avoidance', 'circumlocution', 'approximation', and 'asking friends for assistance' which are their CCC(s) and CS(s) strategies and they are mediated tools to overcome their speaking problems at the time of communicating with the lecturers. The application of the above CCC(s) and CS(s) of Thai students had saved them, in other words; they help these Thai learners to get away from the key concepts related to face issue and peer pressure in the EFL classrooms.

5.4.5 Nonverbal communication

According to Vygotsky (1978), human beings possess the ability to utilize symbols as tools. Therefore, nonverbal communication is considered a cultural tool or artefact that humans have in order to connect to each other, themselves and the world apart from the language. As seen in the analysis of the two main research methods, the findings related to the application of nonverbal communication by Thai students in the interviews and the classroom observations contradict one another. According to interviews of teachers, especially the American lecturer (NL1) and the British lecturer (NL2), the students in their classes hardly or rarely expressed mimes or non–linguistic means in the classrooms. Due to the statement of the American lecturer (NL1) in chapter 4, a result of sudden give–up or rejection of students' talks in the EFL classrooms could reduce the acts of expressing non–linguistic means. Furthermore, the British lecturer (NL2) added that the students whom he considered as having low English proficiency tended to apply more hand gestures. Whereas, the students with the better English proficiency would demonstrate or express more facial expressions in responding to him. In the classroom observations and data analysis, the use of mime or nonverbal communication was ranked the second strategy that Thai students utilised in the classroomsparticularly within the classrooms of the American lecturer (NL1) and the British lecturer (NL2). Despite the answers

from NL1 and NL2 regarding less application of non–linguistic means or mimes of their Thai students, it could be interpreted that a large number of students in their classes could become a factor affecting and decreasing an effectiveness in observation or notice of the lecturers into the learners' use of mimes. By reviewing Engeström's activity theory, people utilise tools, and improve them in order to assist human's activities. It can be said that non–linguistic means are perceived as the tools to help solve communication issues between teachers and students. Moreover, these tools or the non–linguistic means applied by the Thai students were used to suit the students' needs. The target students applied these tools or nonverbal communication to achieve one main purpose, that is; to deliver their intended messages, thoughts, ideas, and opinions to their lecturer. In the activity system, nonverbal communication or non–linguistic means are mediated tools that the students use to complete their tasks, especially speaking tasks or activities. As claimed by Kain and Wardle (1997), tools can shape the way students engage in classroom activities and the way they think about it. This statement supports the findings taken from the analysis of the interviews of teachers and the classroom observations regarding the application of nonverbal communication by Thai students. Therefore, a large number of Thai students in this study chose to apply nonverbal communication whilst communicating with their lecturer in the Thai EFL classrooms. This could point to the fact that Thai students not only tried to take part or engage in the lectures or classroom activities but these signs could also be useful demonstration and reflection of their thoughts.

5.4.6 The use of repetitions by the lecturers as part of CCC(s) or CS(s) in the classroom

The application of repetition of phrases or sentences was the basic pedagogical strategy that was found amongst the three research methods analysis apart from Tarone's CS taxonomies. This strategy is being seen as a way that the teachers used in order to elicit answers or responses from the students. The responses taken from the interviews of teachers and the findings that emerged from classroom

observation analysis are correspondent with one another. It can be seen that having used this pedagogical strategy, the teachers had helped maintain the conversation with his or her students. Moreover, this strategy has provided a chance or it has opened up an opportunity for the students to rethink what to answer or how to respond to their lecturer at that moment. By giving more opportunities for students to rethink and answer that question again, the students could take less risk of having lost their face in front of the class. It is proposed that, repetition or rephrasing of phrases or sentences is not only a simply pedagogical strategy which assists the learners to gain more time in speaking up but it is also perceived as a communication strategy to make the students think carefully before speaking or replying an answer to the teacher with more confidence.

5.5 The application of activity theory as to explain Thai EFL classroom teaching–learning through the use of CCC(s), CS(s), pedagogical strategies by the four lecturers and the Thai students

'Activity theory', based on Vygotsky's work in 1920s and early 1930s has been developed by Engeström, (1996 as cited in Engeström, 2009). Kain and Wardle (1997) compare the activity system to a community or a group of people who share things in common such as object, motives and different kinds of tools to act upon the object and to comprehend the motive. Likewise this case study of the Thai EFL classrooms also defines or compares with the activity theory. According to Russell (1997), the activity system is composed of ongoing, object–directed, historically conditioned, dialectically–structured, tool–mediated and human interaction. In this case study, the EFL classrooms where the English lessons took place were considered the 'ongoing'. 'Object–directed' is represented by the aims of each English courses set by the four teachers and the objectives that the students would like to achieve after taking the courses. Historical conditioning can be compared to the history of Thai educational system. The teaching and learning path was firstly influenced by 'Buddhism', 'rote learning', and 'teacher–centred'

as temples were the first schools in the history of the Thai educational system. 'Dialectically–structured' described a system relation which demonstrates dependency on each other. In this study, teachers, students, tools used to communicate, classroom rules, community and division of labour are related and depend on one another in order to achieve or accomplish the object–directed aims or goals of the studies. 'Tool mediated' is perceived as various or different types of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies that the teachers and students applied in order to get the messages across. 'Human interaction' is defined by the interactions in the real classroom settings, in this case study amongst teachers and students. By utilising communicative tools, the teachers and their learners could accomplish or fulfil their outcomes. Apart from that, rules in the activity theory triangle refer to classroom or each English course's mutual agreements or protocols between teacher and students so that their teaching and learning activities could continue and achieve the learning outcomes. The division of labour is presented as responsibilities. For example, the students have the responsibility to attend the class and respond to teachers' questions. The lecturers are responsible for improving the students' speaking skills and abilities etc. To expand further, the EFL classrooms of the four lecturers are explained in a form of the activity theory which are discussed respectively.

5.5.1 Components of triangle model (activity theory) according to this study context

5.5.1.1 Subjects and objectives

Following Engeström's activity theory, subjects in this study context are composed of the four teachers–the American lecturer (NL1), the British lecturer (NL2), the male Thai lecturer (NT3), the female Thai lecturer (NT4) as well as the students as participants who studied with these four lecturers. The objects or objectives can be various which depends upon each English courses or subjects, though, there are common purposes or objectives of studying these English courses. For example, the common objectives of these English courses are firstly,

students will be able to communicate effectively and fluently outside the classrooms whilst using conversation patterns learned in their daily life; secondly, students will be able to develop or improve their English skills–listening, reading, writing, speaking for academic purposes; finally, students will be able to use their English competences to apply for better paid jobs after graduation.

5.5.1.2 Tools

The English and Thai language are the main tools that both parties–the four lecturers and the Thai students used to communicate and interact in order to get messages across in the teaching and learning classroom contexts. In addition, the application of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies being used in teachers and students' communication are viewed as mediated tools in the Thai EFL classroom context. These mediated tools are presented in the model of the activity theory. To recall, the main tools or the CCC(s) that the American lecturer (NL1) largely applied in his classroom teachings comprised of 'mime' or nonverbal communication, 'response confirm' strategy and speaking slowly, clearly unlike native English speakers as part of the pedagogical strategies. Speaking slowly and clearly could be viewed as mediated tools in the triangular activity theory model that this lecturer utilised in order to accomplish the teaching outcomes. For the British lecturer, his major mediated tools or CCC(s) applied in the Thai EFL classrooms are composed of 'language switch', 'mime', and 'response confirm' strategy. Additionally, speaking slowly, expressing hand and facial gestures become mediated tools which were used by NL2. The male Thai lecturer or NT3 utilised several pedagogical strategies as being his main communication strategies. At the same time, the CS(s) he used in the Thai EFL lessons could be viewed as his key mediated tools including eliciting or repeating sentences, the use of 'jokes', and 'praise'. For the female Thai lecturers, the main mediated tool which was largely applied in her teaching lessons is the use of 'language switch'. Besides, a major mediated tool that the students of NL1 frequently applied in the classrooms is 'mime'. For those who studied with NL2, they utilised a variety of CCC(s) and they were counted for being the main mediated tools such as 'language switch', 'mime', 'message abandonment', and 'response confirm'.

Furthermore, the principal mediated tools applied by students of NT3 include ‘approximation’, ‘language switch’, ‘response confirm’, and ‘response reject’. Last but not least, the main mediated tool which were applied by the students of the female Thai lecturer or NT4 are comprised of ‘language switch’ and ‘response confirm’.

5.5.1.3 Rules in the Thai EFL classrooms

It is mentioned earlier that there are different rules in each lesson which were set up by each lecturer. Thus, these rules also depend upon the lecturer. However, there are common rules in the EFL classrooms. To demonstrate, the American lecturer reported in his interview that students had to arrive on time in class and those who came to the class later than 15 minutes would be recorded for coming late. Moreover, if a particular student came to the class late three times, his or her attendance mark would be deducted. Another rule is that; students were not allowed to talk while the teacher was explaining the lessons or giving talks. In other words, students need to remain silent during the time that the teacher is giving lectures. Furthermore, all lecturers did expect his or her students to take part or get involved in pair or group activities and be proactive whilst interacting or responding to lecturers’ questions.

5.5.1.4 Community

The community or the Thai society within the Thai culture is where these target students have been brought up. It is perceived that Thai culture has received influences from Buddhism and Buddhist teaching as well as the hierarchical system. These norms and values have been deep rooted in Thai society and within the mind of Thai students. Having clarified earlier that Thai students have been taught to have high respect, deference to their teachers, thus, arguing or challenging teachers by asking questions have been taken into account and consideration in the students’ mind. This perception is part of the Buddhist teachings. Furthermore, this perception has established the emphasis of face–saving or face–maintaining amongst Thai students which has been discussed at length. It is known that Thai students grow up with the concept of what is called–

’the in–group’. This value has pointed towards the reactions of Thai students with their teachers, for example; they are being shy to speak up. Many Thai students are likely to receive an approval or courage and some help from his or her friends in order to gain more confidence prior to taking an action or speaking up. Moreover, rote–learning–the traditional learning approach descended from teaching approach of the Buddhist monks, grammar translation methods, and teacher–centred classrooms have engaged and shaped the behaviours of Thai students at the time of learning English. Therefore, these important values derived from the hierarchical system and the Buddhist religion were consciously and unconsciously expressed or acted upon by these Thai students during their English learning, speaking and interacting with the lecturers in the EFL lessons.

5.5.1.5 Division of labour

The division of labour in the Thai EFL classrooms of this study has recalled or addressed two teaching approaches or methods which occurred in the classroom observations. These teaching approaches or methods are based on ‘teacher–centred’ and ‘child–centred’. These two approaches were utilised by the four lecturers interchangeably in the classrooms. Having realised that the main teaching approach in the Thai EFL classroom is based on ‘teacher–centred’, it is the teachers’ duty to conduct lectures or giving talks, preparing lesson slides, calling upon students to answer his or her questions, managing or controlling and facilitating pair or group tasks in the classrooms. However, the division of labour could be changed when the students initiated the actions or started interacting with their lecturer. To demonstrate, students addressed questions to the lecturer when they had doubts about what they had learned from the lesson. The leading role or the change of division of labour of these target Thai students could be seen during the time that students were giving the individual or the group presentation in front of the classroom as well as leading discussions on the topics provided by the teacher. In other words, teachers only facilitated students and it was students’ jobs to conduct or initiate those assigned activities or tasks by themselves. The obvious example is when the students of the British lecturers were discussing and having an individual presentation on the topics related to the lessons. Another vivid

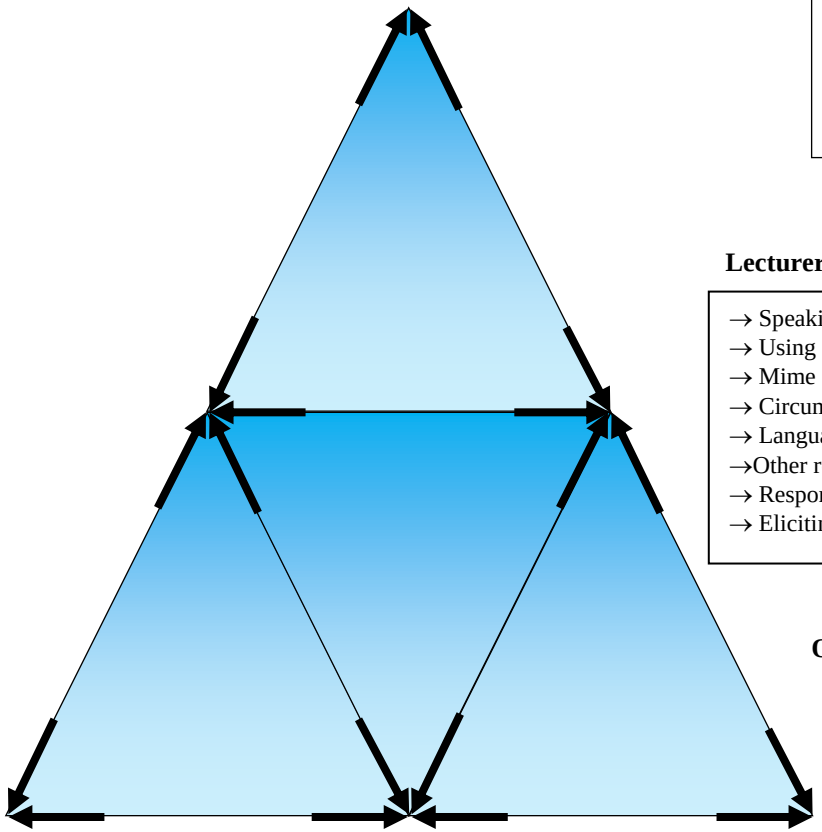
example is when the students of the female Thai lecturer were presenting their roleplay in front of the classroom pretending that they were the travel agent company taking customers to visit tourist places in Thailand. The initiation of the students under teacher's facilitation can be seen as a shift from the teacher–centred approach to the child–centred approach. That is, the division of labour has been changed or conducted by students instead of teachers.

5.6 The demonstration of Engeström activity theory as to explain Thai EFL classrooms in form of triangular models

As explained in Chapter two activity theory has been chosen to be one of the main theoretical frameworks of this study. The findings discussed in chapter four emerged from the three main research methods analysis–the interviews of teachers and students, the observations of the classroom teachings and the audio recordings of classroom teachings. Here, they are presented in the form of triangular models to illustrate relationships in the Thai EFL classroom, the effectiveness of the use of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies, and relations or tensions amongst language teaching and learning components. The following figures which illustrate the Thai EFL classrooms of the four lecturers in the form of Engeström's activity theory have supported his contention that all elements– subjects, objects, tools or mediated artefacts, rules, and community are closely related to one another. Furthermore, the following figures provide clear pictures of how the cultural elements such as rules, community, and division of labour have played significant roles in shaping the way that these target students communicate and interact with their lecturer as part of the Thai society or Thai culture. The following triangular models are presented in accordance with the four lecturers; starting from the American lecturer (NL1), the British lecturer (NL2), the male Thai lecturer (NT3), and the female Thai lecturer (NT4) respectively. As stated by Barab *et al*. (2002), the use of activity theory is to comprehend what it is called 'systemic tensions'. That is, systemic tensions or inner contradictions characterize or identify activity systems. In this study, systemic tensions are seen as problems

or issues caused by Thai students. For example, an occurring of silence in EFL classrooms because students are afraid to talk in front of the classroom or respond back to the teacher's question, resulting in less participation in the Thai classroom due to the value of face–maintaining. These systemic tensions are seen as cultural problematic issues that the four lecturers need to find the best solutions for, so that their students could be more confident to speak up and get engaged more in their English lessons.

Figure 5.1 : A demonstration of NL1's classroom activity model



Tools ↔ Students' strategies

→ Mime*
→ Topic avoidance
→ Message abandonment
→ Mumbling
→ Transliteration
→ Asking friend for help
→ Simple words/ synonyms
→ Using online dictionary

Lecturer's strategies

→ Speaking slowly and clearly
→ Using aids (Google Translate, Thai dictionary on the smartphone)
→ Mime
→ Circumlocution
→ Language switch
→Other repair
→ Response confirm
→ Eliciting and repeating sentences

Subjects
(1) The American lecturer (NL1)
(2) The students of NL1

Object ↔

→ to improve students' language competencies/skills especially speaking skills
→ to communicate effectively with native speakers, their English lecturers
→ to pass exams
→ to be able to apply for well–paid jobs

Rules

→ classroom participation
→ Thai students' good manners in the classroom
→ Students ought not to come to the class later than 15 minutes.
→ Students are not allowed to talk while the teacher is giving lectures, explaining the lesson.

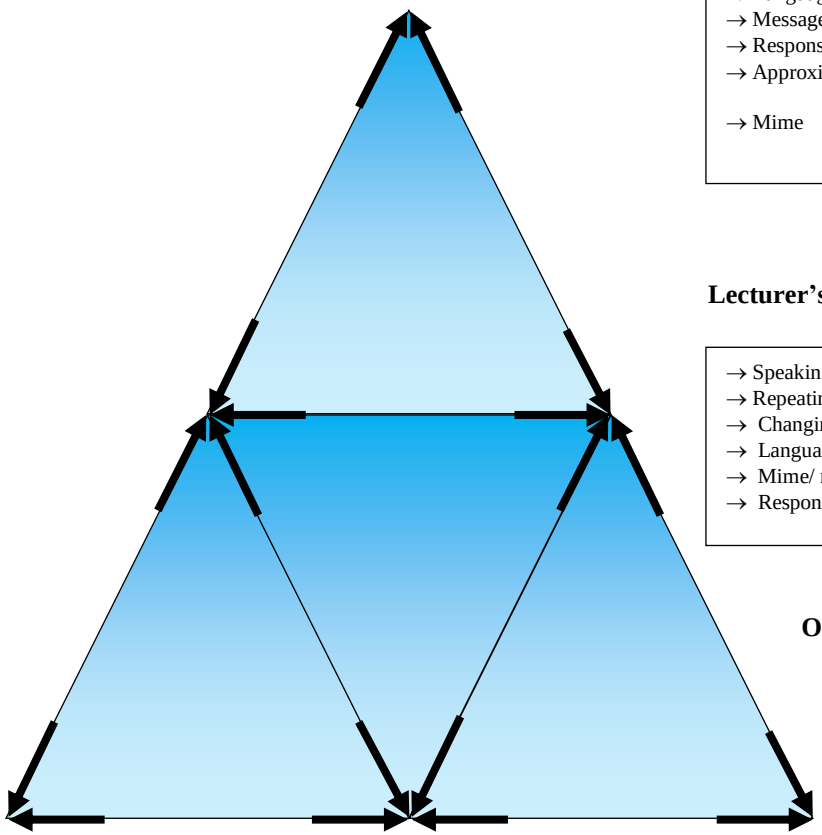
Community

→ The value of high respect, deference to the teachers.
→ The value of face–maintaining/ face–saving
→ The influence of Buddhism–rote–learning, grammar translation.
→ Hierarchical status between teachers and students

Division of Labour

→ The change of classroom power (e.g. teacher–centred approach to learner–centred approach)
→ An occurrence of turn–taking between teacher and student.
→ A distribution of pair or group work or task in the classroom.

Figure 5.2 : A demonstration of NL2's classroom activity model



Tools ↔ Students' strategies

→ Language switch *
→ Literal translation
→ Mime
→ Message abandonment*
→ Topic avoidance
→ Response reject
→ Response confirm*
→ Mumbling
→ Use of fillers
→ Approximation
→ Other repetition
→ Mime

Subjects

(1) The British lecturer (NL2)

(2) The students of NL2

Lecturer's strategies

→ Speaking slower
→ Repeating sentences
→ Changing tones of voice, simplifying questions and words used in lectures
→ Language switch
→ Mime/ nonverbal communication
→ Response confirm

Object ↔

→ to improve students' language competencies/skills especially speaking skills
→ to communicate effectively with native speakers, their English lecturers
→ to pass exams
→ to be able to apply for well–paid jobs

Rules

→ classroom participation
→ Thai students' good manners in the classroom
→ Students ought not to come to the class later than 15 minutes.
→ Students are not allowed to talk while the teacher is giving lectures, explaining the lesson.

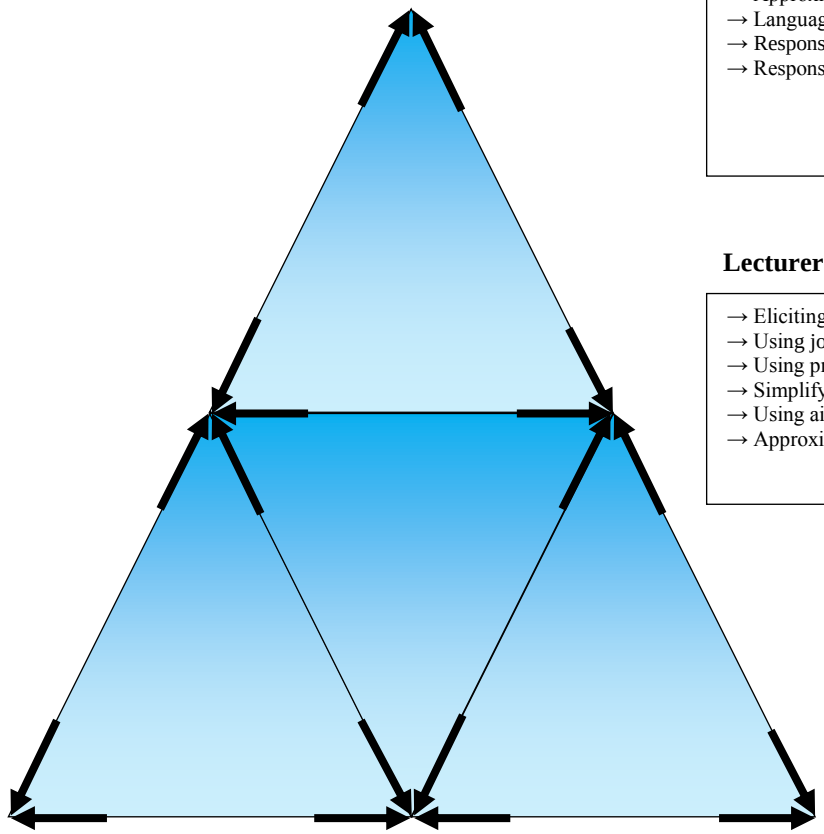
Community

→ The value of high respect, deference to the teachers.
→ The value of face–maintaining/ face–saving
→ The influence of Buddhism–rote–learning, grammar translation.
→ Hierarchical status between teachers and students

Division of Labour

→ The change of classroom power (e.g. teacher–centred approach to learner–centred approach)
→ An occurrence of turn–taking between teacher and student.
→ A distribution of pair or group work or task in the classroom.

Figure 5.3 : A demonstration of NT3's classroom activity's model



Tools ↔ Students' strategies

→ Approximation*
→ Language switch*
→ Response confirm*
→ Response reject*
→ Circumlocution
→ Asking friend for assistance
→ Mime
→ Literal translation
→ Message abandonment
→ Mumbling
→ Self–repair
→The use of fillers

Lecturer's strategies

→ Eliciting/ repeating sentences or phrases
→ Using jokes in the EFL classrooms
→ Using praise
→ Simplifying sentences
→ Using aids–YouTube, music video, pictures on internet
→ Approximation
→Language switch
→Mime
→ other repair
→ Response confirm
→Response reject

Subjects
(1) The male Thai lecturer (NT3)
(2) The students of NT3

Object ↔

→ to improve students' language competencies/skills especially speaking skills
→ to communicate effectively with native speakers, their English lecturers
→ to pass exams
→ to be able to apply for well–paid jobs

Rules

→ classroom participation
→ Thai students' good manners in theclassroom
→ Students ought not to come to the class later than 15 minutes.
→ Students are not allowed to talk while the teacher is giving lectures, explaining the lesson.

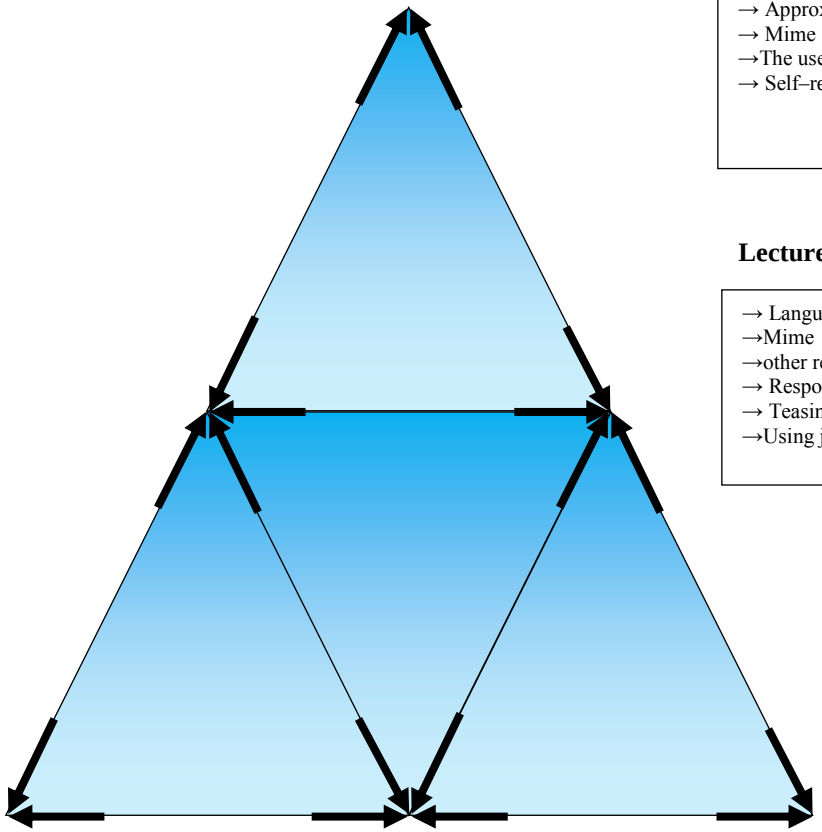
Community

→ The value of high respect, deference to the teachers.
→ The value of face–maintaining/ face–saving
→ The influence of Buddhism–rote–learning, grammar translation.
→ Hierarchical status between teachers and students

Division of Labour

→ The change of classroom power (e.g. teacher–centred approach to learner–centred approach)
→ An occurrence of turn–taking between teacher and student.
→ A distribution of pair or group work or task in the classroom.

Figure 5.4 : A demonstration of NT4's classroom activity model



Tools ⟷ Students' strategies

→ Language switch*
→ Response confirm*
→ Approximation
→ Mime
→The use of fillers
→ Self–repair
→ Circumlocution
→ Asking friend for assistance
→ Literal translation
→ Message abandonment
→ Mumbling
→ Response reject
→ Topic avoidance

Subjects

(1) The male Thai lecturer (NT4)

(2) The students of NT4

Lecturer's strategies

→ Language switch
→Mime
→other repair
→ Response confirm
→ Teasing students
→Using jokes
→ Using praise

Object ⟷

→ to improve students' language competencies/skills especially speaking skills
→ to communicate effectively with native speakers, their English lecturers
→ to pass exams
→ to be able to apply for well–paid jobs

Rules

→ classroom participation
→ Thai students' good manners in the classroom
→ Students ought not to come to the class later than 15 minutes.
→ Students are not allowed to talk while the teacher is giving lectures, explaining the lesson.

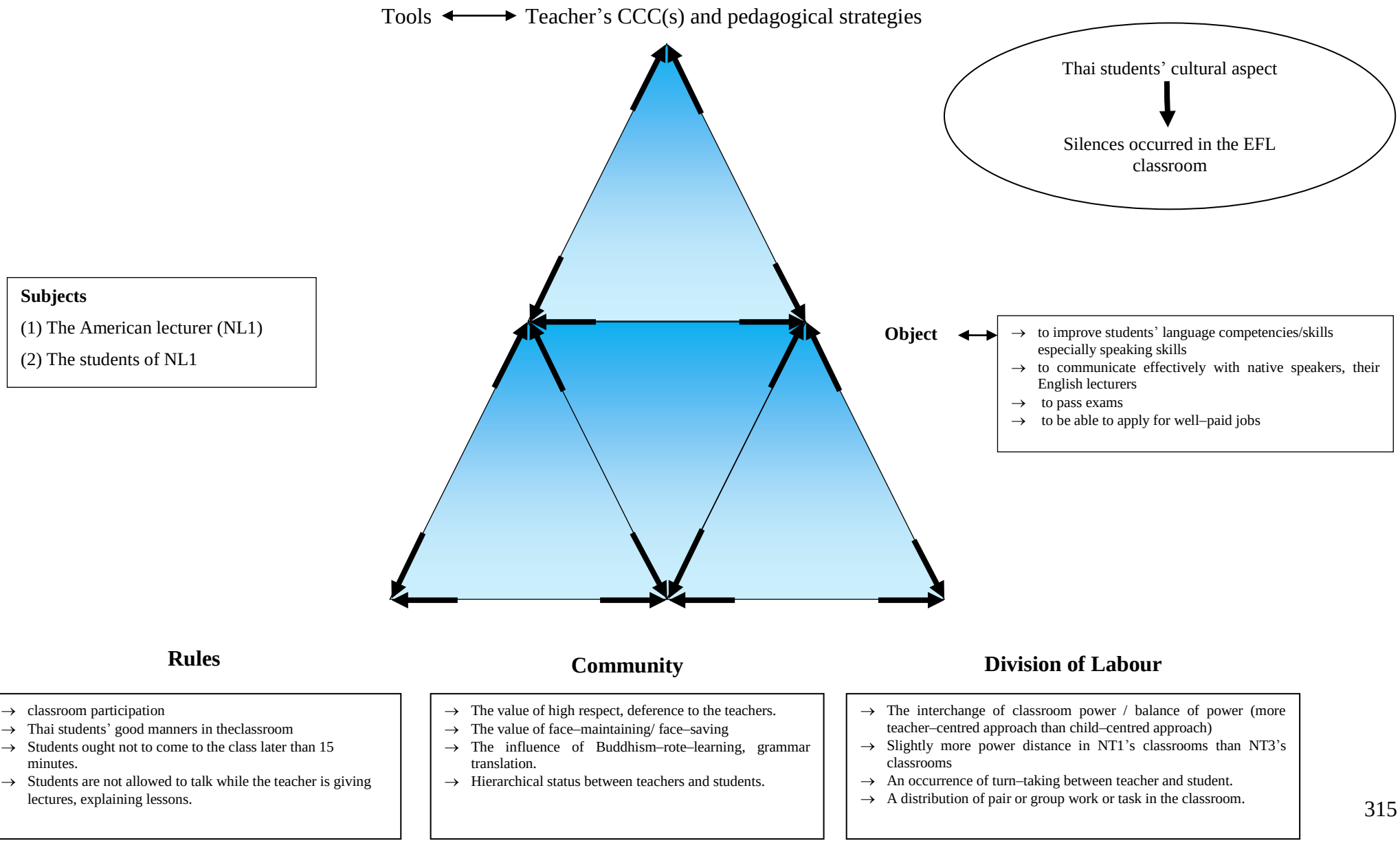
Community

→ The value of high respect, deference to the teachers.
→ The value of face–maintaining/ face–saving
→ The influence of Buddhism–rote–learning, grammar translation.
→ Hierarchical status between teachers and students

Division of Labour

→ The change of classroom power (e.g. teacher–centred approach to learner–centred approach)
→ An occurrence of turn–taking between teacher and student.
→ A distribution of pair or group work or task in the classroom.

Figure 5.5 : A demonstration of NL1 and NL3's classroom activity model and its systemic tension (silence)



The figure 5.5 provides an illustration of the systemic tension or the systemic problem caused by Thai students of NL1 in the EFL classroom. This systemic tension is 'silence'. It is perceived from chapter 4 that silence made by Thai students frequently occurred in the classrooms of the American lecturer (NL1) and in the male Thai lecturer (NT3)'s lessons slightly more than the other EFL classrooms of NL2 and NT4. According to the successful cross–cultural communication strategies applied by the four lecturers, the use of elicitation or repetition of phrases or sentences played a significant role in dealing with the silence revealed to be an issue for Thai learners. The use of elicitation or repetition of phrases or sentences by NT1 can be seen in the following excerpt:

An extra excerpt I : Illustration of silence occurred in NT1's classroom

Minutes: 5.01

Situation: T1 repeated the question again to the whole class.

Speaker		**Transcribed exchange**
T1	:	How many people are talking ?
S1	:	Three / four (some students said "three" , some said " four").
T1	:	A, B or C
S(w/c)	:	Silence.
T1	:	Who said "A"…who said "B".
S3	:	(Raised their hands and smiled).
T1	:	B is correct. There are three people talking.
T1	:	Remember, Mark is one of the people that is talking.

As revealed by the data analysis the American lecturer (NT1)'s most frequently used CCC is one of his pedagogical strategies–speaking slowly and clearly unlike a native English speaker. There were many times that the utilisation of this pedagogical strategy was not sufficiently effective to improve communication in the EFL classroom without the help of other CCC(s) and pedagogical strategies such as elicitation or repetition of phrases or sentences, mime or nonverbal

communication, the use of praise, complimentary words, jokes, language switching, and response confirmation words to give courage to Thai students, boost their confidence, maintain or get students engaged with a particular conversation or an activity. The following excerpt taken from NT3's lesson demonstrates that a combination of CCC(s) and pedagogical strategies ought to be conducted or applied in the Thai EFL classrooms as to get the students to talk or speak up as well as to advocate the use of CCC(s) or CS(s) from these Thai learners.

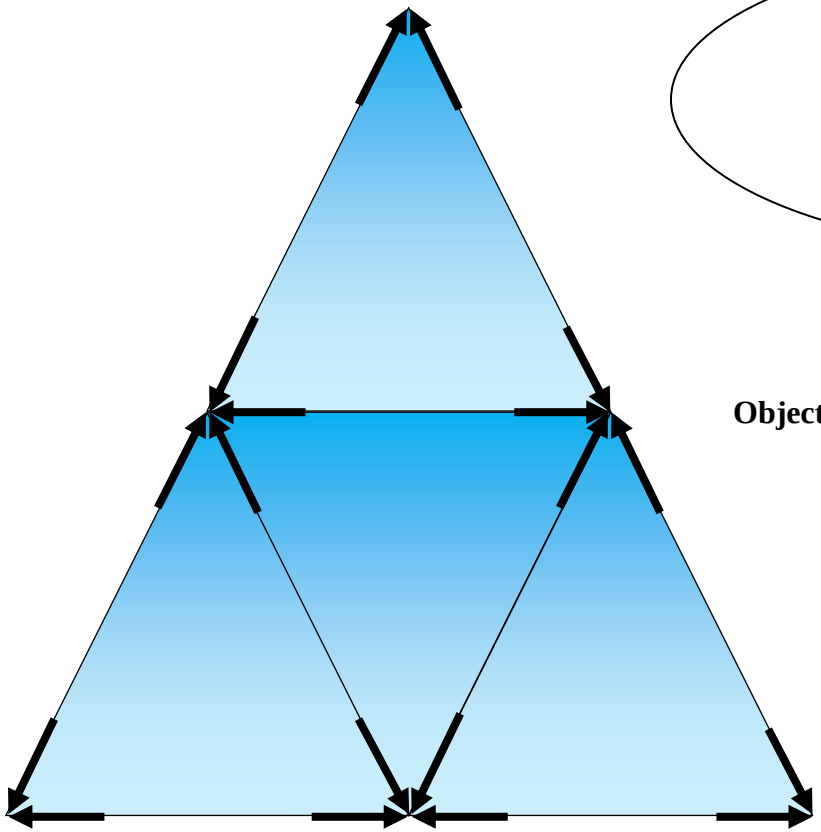
An extra excerpt II : Illustration of silence occurred in NT3's classrooms

Minute 10.14

Speaker		**Transcribed exchange**
T3	**:**	Wow! How tall, how high is from the bridge to the water?
S(w/c)	**:**	45…(one student said). *
T3	**:**	45 metres high. That…that is very high, isn't it. And how much is the price?
S(w/c)	**:**	(Students remained quiet).
T3	**:**	OK! Let's try again! The price, one more time.
S(w/c)	**:**	85 dollars (A few students answered).
T3	**:**	Very clearly, right! 85 dollars for bungee jumping and the next activity is to go sky diving.
T3	**:**	(Turned on the next audio extract).
T3	**:**	Wow! Three….
S(w/c)	**:**	Thousand. (A few students answered).
T3	**:**	Wow! Three thousand metres, 3 kilometres, very high isn't it?

From this small excerpt, NT3 tried different ways to elicit answers from his students such as the use of elicitation of sentences, the use of praise or complimentary words to encourage students to speak up and several response confirmation words such as 'OK', 'right', 'wow' to confirm students' answers.

Figure 5.6 : A demonstration of the Thai EFL classroom activity model and its systemic tension (face–maintaining issue)



As presented above, figure 5.6 shows that one of the main systemic tensions or issues that frequently emerged is that Thai students are afraid of speaking up or responding to their teacher's questions or queries. This is due to the so–called value of 'face–saving' or 'face–maintaining' in Thai culture that has conditioned the majority of Thai students' not to argue and challenge their teacher in the classroom. In addition, the fear of making mistakes or errors when speaking or having conversation with the lecturer obviously prevented Thai students from exercising their English speaking skills. Therefore, one of the elements of Engeström's activity theory which is 'community' has come into play. In order to manage, support and boost Thai students' confidence to speak up, the teachers need to be sensitive about Thai culture, their students' cultural aspects, behaviours and expressions when interacting with peers especially with the teacher in the lessons. It is acknowledged that it could be very difficult for the four target lecturers to address individual communication issues with the large class sizes they have to manage, understanding of the nature of Thai students, the proper distribution of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies in the cross–culturally contexts are likely to increase the confidence of Thai students leading to more participation, engagement and willingness of students to speak up in the class. A vivid example of this can be seen in the classroom of the male Thai lecturer who utilised a variety of CS(s) and pedagogical strategies in order to elicit or get his students to talk more and maintain the conversation.

An extra excerpt III : Illustration of Thai students having fear to speak up that occurred in NT3's classroom.

Minute 26.29

T3:	Let's turn to part C. So for this example, they say: it's a good idea to take a camera. So now you can change the object, you can say: it's a good idea to do something, right! When you travel in this city and part B, you talk about the cost so how much is that? And part C: you talk about you need to do something in this place, right! So I'd like you to do the class work together, so think about one place in our city. What seem to be an interesting place for a tourist from other country?
S(w/c):	(Remained quiet).
T3:	So would you like to try Wat Yai again? Would you like to try Wat Yai again for this example? OK, we'll try Wai Yai together– so and then you kind of give information to some tourists. Pattern A, you can see? What can you see in that place?
S(w/c):	Monks (one student answered).
T3:	OK, very good (huh…huh) Buddhist monks and anything else?

In this excerpt, Thai students remained quiet when hearing a few questions from NT3. When NT3 realised that his students remained quiet, he tried to elicit answers from them using elicitation and repeating sentences. After that, one student gave him an answer so he made a compliment to that student. Shortly

after, another student responded to his following question without hesitation. This can be interpreted that with the use of NT3's CS(s) and pedagogical strategies, his understanding of the students' nature and support could decrease fear of students so that they can have more confidence to speak up.

5.6.1 Analysis of findings against Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) 'inventory of strategic language devices with descriptions' and against activity theory.

The presence of Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) 'inventory of strategic language devices with descriptions' or the composite table was perceived as a useful CS strategies framework which helped rechecking the application of CS(s) and CCC(s) by Thai students and lecturers. It can be seen that suggested CCC(s) and CS(s) or the so-called positive strategies to be applied for Thai students and lecturers in the EFL classroom such as 'mime', 'approximation', 'response confirm', 'language switch' are parts of or the subset of Dörnyei and Scott's CS strategies presented in the composite table (see below section 4.3 Findings from classroom observations and audio recordings of the classroom teachings for the composite table of Dörnyei and Scotts's (1997)). Furthermore, the suggested CCC(s) and CS strategies are perceived as mediated tools in activity theory's system as they assisted students in reducing tensions between lecturers and students whilst communicating and interacting. Due to other elements in the activity theory such as rules of the classroom teaching community which is rooted from certain cultural values or dimensions in that particular culture or Thai culture of this study context, division of labour or the change of power between lecturers and students as well as the object or goal of each classroom setting, these CCC(s) and CS(s) can be differently and cross-culturally adapted or applied by EFL lecturers. For other recommended CCC(s) and CS(s) to be applied for teachers of EFL classroom, pedagogic strategies also play a significant role in helping students to maintain conversation and speak up with more confidence. It is acknowledged that CCC(s) and CS(s) are, therefore, based on pedagogic strategies and teaching practices such as speaking slowly and clearly unlike a native English speaker, eliciting and repeating phrases or sentences, using complimentary words or using praise and using jokes or sense of humour. Additionally, it can be

summarised that these three types of communication strategies: CCC(s), CSs and pedagogic strategies are all related with one another. Thus, it cannot be denied that CCC(s), CS(s) are stemed from pedagogic approaches and commom use of pedagogic strategies in the classroom. Morover, other common CS strategies appeared in Dörnyei and Scott's (1997)'s composite table which were not found in the study's research findings can also be applied as cross-cultural communication strategies depending on different cultural context of EFL classroom settings.

5.7 Research questions revisited

In this part an integration of the research findings produced in this study are used to answer the research questions initially stated. The first question is about the application of cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom. The second question is reasons why the native English lecturers and Thai students apply cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom. The last question is about factors leading to effective communication between native English lecturers and Thai students.

Research question 1–What are cross–cultural communication strategies applied in the Thai EFL classroom?

This study presents that a variety of cross–cultural communication strategies were applied by the native English lecturers when they were in the conversation and interacting with their students. As cross–cultural communication strategies signify the communication across cultures, therefore the cross–cultural communication strategies found in the Thai EFL are the ones which were utilised by the American lecturer (NL1) and the British lecturer (NL2) when communicating with the students in their classroom teachings. To recall the findings analysed and presented in chapter four, NL1 applied a range of CCC(s) which combines the CS

strategies derived from Tarone's (1977; 1983)'s, Willems (1987), and Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) taxonomies as well as the application of pedagogical strategies. The cross–cultural communication strategies are comprised of: 'circumlocution', 'language switch', 'mime', 'other repair', 'response confirm', the use of eliciting and repeating sentences or phrases, and the use of praise. Apart from that, speaking slowly and using aids such as Google Translate and a Thai online dictionary became part of the American lecturer's pedagogical strategies which were used cross culturally in the lessons in order to get his messages across to his students. However, the students of NL1 only applied four cross–cultural communication strategies which are 'mime', 'topic avoidance', 'message abandonment', and 'mumbling' in return to the American lecturer. In addition to these strategies, the students reported that they also utilised transliteration, simple words or synonyms and online dictionary on the smartphone in order to help them communicate with this native English lecturer. In contrast, it was found in the classroom observations that there are only three of CCC(s) that the British lecturer applied in his classroom teachings. These CCC(s) are composed of: 'language switch', 'mime', and 'response confirm' which are the combination of Tarone's (1977; 1983), and Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b)'s taxonomies. Moreover, the application of other pedagogical strategies seen in his teachings include the use of different tones of voice, simplifying questions, lecturers, repeating sentences, and speaking slower. The students of NL2 applied eleven CCC(s) as mentioned in the previous chapter. To recall, the CCC(s) which had been captured in the classroom observations, the strategies are: 'approximation', 'circumlocution', 'literal translation', 'language switch', 'appeal for assistance', 'mime', 'message abandonment', 'mumbling', 'response confirm', 'response reject', 'self–repair', and the 'use of fillers'.

Research question 2–Why native English lecturers and Thai students do use cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom?

To answer this research question, it is necessary to look at the main themes that emerged after the research methods analysis. Having perceived that the first key theme is about Thai students' cultural aspects or features, silence frequently occurred amongst the Thai students whilst studying English with the four lecturers. Therefore, the first reason for the native English lecturers' use of cross–cultural communication strategies was to lessen or to solve a problem of students having remained silent in their EFL classrooms. Due to the issue of the low English language proficiencies of the target Thai students in this case study, the application of cross–cultural communication strategies had helped maintain or kept the conversation between the native English lecturers and their students going. It can be interpreted that the use of CCC(s) by the native English teachers not only facilitated the students to continue speaking, but those strategies were assisting and supporting their students in building or boosting the confidence in utilising English in the Thai EFL lessons. To emphasise, the use of praise, the use of jokes, and the use of repetition or elicitation could make students feel at ease, hence these basic pedagogical strategies which become part of CCC(s) are considered crucial. In addition, the use of CCC(s) and pedagogical strategies applied by the native English lecturers could help them to understand the students' thoughts and messages, as well as what they wanted to say or communicate to the teacher at that moment. In a similar way, the majority of the Thai students in this study admitted that the utilisation of CCC(s) also assisted them to express their ideas, thoughts, and opinions in the way to respond back to the teacher. Regarding the other cultural aspects or features of the Thai students such as the fear of speaking up, the fear of making errors or mistakes when speaking English in front of the classrooms which are directly related to the value of face–saving or face–maintaining, the use of CCC(s) and the application of pedagogical strategies as mentioned above could provide chances for the students to participate or to get engaged more in the speaking tasks within the teacher's support and approval.

Research question 3–What factors contribute to effective communication between native English lecturers and Thai students in the Thai EFL classroom?

As argued in chapter four, there are various factors affecting the communication between native English lecturers and Thai students. Thai students' negative features particularly the cultural aspect such as silence, being passive students, not being proactive in the classroom, and the low English competency of the students are seen as the major concerns or factors contributing to ineffective communication in the Thai EFL classrooms. It is proposed that, cross–cultural communication strategies, communication strategies and pedagogical strategies which were applied by the four teachers and their students are factors contributing to effective communication. It can be said that CCC(s) and CS(s) assisted the students in this study to overcome the problem or the crisis especially when they wanted to convey or deliver their intended messages or thoughts and when their language structures are inadequate (Tarone, 1977 as cited in Dörnyei and Scott (1997)). Furthermore, another factor which can contribute to effective communication in the EFL lessons are the great understanding of Thai students' cultural aspects or features and the nature of the students as well as their behaviours. Importantly, the native English lecturers need to take the cultural aspects or Thai students' features into consideration and keep this in mind all the time at the time of teaching. Moreover, teachers' support can be considered as another significant factor which helps students to gain more confidence in speaking up, so that the communication and interaction amongst teachers and students could become more effective in the Thai EFL lessons.

To sum up, the main findings from three research instruments and research questions have been argued or discussed as well as interpreted with practical rationales or reasons. The qualitative data analysis disclosed that CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies were advantageous and effective in use amongst teachers and students. The findings equip the new empirical data demonstrated as evidences. That is, the application of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies are necessary for the both the teachers and the learners of language.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION

The conclusions of this research are summarised in this section. Firstly, the distinctiveness of the research are discussed followed by the significance of the research. Additionally, the limitations of this study and next steps for further research are described. At the end of this section, recommendations and implications which have emerged while conducting the study are described or presented.

6.1 Distinctiveness of the research

Having compared the previous research about the use of CCC(s) and CS(s) in Thailand by the Thai learners, this research is distinctive in terms of its research instruments or methods, and the activity models which have been developed from the main theoretical framework of the study–the Engeström activity theory. To clarify this, the previous research related to CS(s) or CCC(s) conducting in Thailand were mostly based on speaking tasks, followed by the questionnaires, interview, and classroom observation. It can be said that those previous studies related to the use of CS(s) and CCC(s) in Thailand from 2001 up to 2013 (Wongsawang, 2001, Wannaruk, 2003, Weerarak, 2003, Pornpibul 2005, Kongsom 2009, Chuanchaisit and Prapphal, 2009, Prapobratanakul and Kangkun 2011, and Metcalfe and Noom–Ura, 2013) were mostly emphasised on the investigation of Thai students through the use of speaking tasks. This research is different from the other previous studies in the way that it combined several research instruments or methods which are the interviews of lecturers and students, the classroom observations, and the audio recordings of the classroom teachings. The combination of these three research methods has never been conducted before in the previous studies. The fact that this current research was conducted as a case study has provided the profound insight of the real Thai EFL

classroom settings or situations as well as the real application of the CCC(s) and CS(s) amongst the lecturers and the students. Furthermore, the utilisation of Engeström's activity theory which is perceived as the reconstruction models through the use of the mediated artefacts–CCC(s) and CS(s) in the Thai EFL classroom have never been applied to the previous studies but in this current case study.

6.2 Limitations of the research and next steps for further research

6.2.1 Limitations of the research

Due to the number of the native English lecturers in the English department of Humanities faculty, the choices of native English lecturers were limited. From the period of conducting the pilot study data until the main study data, only two male experienced American lecturers, a male experienced British lecturer, and a male British lecturer with less experience of teaching English in Thai university remained in the English department. Therefore, the number of the native English lecturers participated in the main study was dependent on their decision and willingness. As a result, only two male native English lecturers–the experienced American lecturer (NL1) and the less experienced British lecturer (NL2) were willing to participate in the data collection of the main study apart from those Thai lecturers as participants. Another limitation found during the process of the main study data collection is when the classroom teaching observations were conducted. It is known that a number of students in each classroom of the four lecturers were different. However, most of the classrooms contained a number of students ranging from approximately 15 to 82 students. Having observed the conversation or communication, particularly the interaction amongst the lecturer and their students,a large number of students per class could make it more difficult for me as a researcher to collect all details in the classroom observations such as teachings and learning aspects, teacher–student interactions, students' expression of the non–linguistic means or nonverbal communication in the Thai

EFL classrooms. Moreover, it was difficult for me as a researcher to be able to for example, check or investigate all nonverbal communication which was expressed by an individual student in each classroom. Furthermore, there was an issue of using microphones by the volunteered students in each class for the purpose of the classroom observations and the video recordings of the classroom teaching and learning. Some students who volunteered or were assigned by the teachers to use the microphones when responding or answering teacher's question seemed to keep quiet and did not often reply compared to when they did not have the microphone in their hand. This issue becomes part of the research limitation because the target students did not show their responses or interactions with the teacher or friends in the classroom as much as they could have done.

6.2.2 Next steps for further research

Having reviewed issues or problems previously as the limitation of conducting this current research, a next study might be smoother if the classroom size or a number of students in each teaching lesson or classrooms are much smaller than the current study. A smaller classroom size will facilitate and assist a researcher to pick up, investigate or check the CCC(s), CS(s), and non–linguistic means emerging in the classroom observation in an easier way. Besides, it is not a good idea to provide individuals or target students in the classroom observation with a microphone at the time of classroom teaching recording. As a consequence, this could affect how Thai students react, respond or reply back to the lecturer when a microphone was provided to the students. For a suggestion of the classroom observations and the audio recordings of the classroom teachings, it will be helpful if there is a research assistant to help out a main researcher meanwhile observing the CCC(s), CS(s) and the other nonverbal communication occurring in the classroom. This process can be done much more thoroughly especially in the large classroom size if there is an assistant who can also check the occurrence of those communication strategies at the same time as the researcher. With the limitation of the native English speakers who were willing to participate in the

research, a further research will be more interesting if more female native English lecturers can get involve in the research. A participation of female native English lecturer might be able to bring in new perspectives regarding the English teaching practices and other views about the use of CCC(s), CS(s) and pedagogical strategies which have never been explored in the current study. Additionally, more insights and new perspectives can be gained from a number of teachers of other Universities across Thailand participating in a further research.

6.3 Recommendations or implications

This study provides recommendations and implications for the significance of CCC(s), CS(s), pedagogical strategies, and Thai educational system as a result of this research.

6.3.1 The significance of CCC(s), CS(s), and pedagogical strategies in the Thai EFL classrooms

It is accepted by the native English lecturers and the Thai students that the application of CCC(s), CS(s), and pedagogical strategies are useful in the Thai EFL classroom. The fact that some students are not aware of these communicative strategies could result in the ineffective, failure, and misinterpretation of classroom communication and interaction. In addition, an emphasis of the useful CCC(s) and CS(s) for the Thai students will be able to support the speaking skills and provide more confidence for them when using this foreign language with their native English lecturers and with other foreigners outside the classroom. Therefore, CS(s) or CCC(s) instructions in the Thai EFL classroom should be taught, advocated, and promoted in the University in order to make students aware of them, so that Thai students can use them more efficiently when encountering the language problems. For the native English lecturers and Thai lecturers, it is recommended that the more CS(s), CCC(s), and pedagogical strategies are applied in the Thai EFL classrooms, the more communicative strategies will be used by

Thai students in return. Additionally, it is important for the lecturers especially the native English lecturers to understand, keep in mind and pay attention to Thai students' cultural aspects occurring in the English lessons. Those cultural aspects particularly the negative behaviours emerging in the Thai EFL classrooms not only cause communication breakdowns, misinterpretations amongst teachers and students but they can also close up opportunities for students to improve their speaking competence. As it is perceived that the application of the CCC(s), CS(s), and pedagogical strategies depend on the teaching and learning contexts, it is the teachers' awareness and responsibility to apply proper communication strategies in the lessons in order to support or facilitate as well as provide more chances for Thai students to speak up in the EFL classrooms.

6.3.2 Thai educational system

In the interview of students, many students claimed that the lack of solid background of learning English since the secondary school is a consequence of them having the low English language proficiency. It is viewed in the literature review chapter that the Thai educational system emphasises on rote learning, grammar translation and on teaching and learning grammar or language structures, reading and writing rather than sharpening speaking skills. These teaching–learning methods become an urgent matter that Thai educational sectors, educators, Thai scholars have to seriously look into and take some actions. Besides that, the teacher–centred approach, in other words, 'spoon–feeding approach' around which the Thai educational system has been structured for a long time does not take Thai students any further for the use of English. This learning approach is partly suitable for certain Thai students; however, it should be changed within the concern of Thai students' cultural aspects and their learning disciplines. That is, Thai students will not only wait for their teachers to provide them knowledge but they know how to find knowledge for themselves.

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Appendix A : Consent Form

Form of consent for students to take part in 'A Study of Cross–Cultural Communication in the Thai EFL (English as a Foreign Language) Classroom: A Case Study at Naresuan University , Thailand

Researcher: Miss Satip Kuesoongnern,Faculty of Education and Sport, University of Bedfordshire

Contact Information: email : satipk@yahoo.com / Tel : 0869252749

This study is to fulfil the requirement of the Research Degree (PhD studies) at University of Bedfordshire.

You are being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

Information about the research

Objective of the study

This study aims to improve communication between native English lecturers and non–native English students through the use of effective cross–cultural communication strategies in the Thai EFL classroom.

Research Methods

There will be observations and video recording of native English lecturers' giving lessons to non–native English students. Interviews are going to be made to find out communication strategies employed by students and lecturers as well as perceptions toward communication strategies and its usage. There is also a requirement for native English lecturers to keep their reflexive journal after each teaching lesson in order to seek cultural problems occurred in the classroom.

Benefits from the investigation

This study will provide useful information that can lead to cross–cultural problem solving of communication between native English lecturers and Thai students. Besides, it will also provide guideline to create an effective framework of communication in the Thai EFL classroom.

Expectations about students as participants for contribution

– You will be videotaped and observed while your native English lecturers areteaching you and this will take approximately 45 minutes in each lesson.

– The interview (focus group) will last approximately 45–60 minutes.

Please note:

- Your personal information will be used to validate and process the data you provide. All personal data collected and processed for this research is strictly confidential and a researcher will use such information only for research purposes. The researcher will not disclose such data to any third party nor make any unauthorised copies.
- All citations from the data used in published works or presentations shall be anonymised.
- It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. Refusal to take part will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep (and be asked to sign a consent form). If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time, without penalty or loss of benefits, and without giving a reason.

Declaration:

I grant to investigators of this project the permission to record me on video

I understand that any recordings may be transcribed and I agree to these recordings being used for this research. I understand that anonymised extracts may be used in publications, and I give my consent to this use.

I understand that all data collected and processed for this project will be used only for research purposes and will be strictly confidential, and I give my consent to this use.

I declare that:

I am 18 years of age or older;

All information I provide will be full and correct; and

I give this consent freely.

In acceptance of the above, I, ...

*(**participant's** full name) agree to take part in the above named project.

Signed..... Date .....

(Participant)

*Please write in block capitals

Appendix B :

(Examples of interview questions)

Interview questions asking native English lecturers

1. General questions regarding lecturers' background and teaching experiences

1.1 Can you please give some details about yourself– your nationality, where you grew up, your education background and specialisation ?

1.2 Have you had experiences in teaching English prior teaching in the English department, Naresuan University? If so, please give more details about your experiences?

1.3 How many years have you been teaching English at the English department of Naresuan University/ Naresuan University ?

1.4 What courses are you teaching at the moment and to which group of students ?Please explain.

1.5 How do you find teaching English in this university so far ?

1.6 What's your opinion toward Thai students' proficiency of studying English ?

–Can you give examples to support your opinion ?

2. Specific questions regarding communicating/ teaching Thai students

2.1 Have you taught non–native (Thai students) before ?

–How do you find teaching non–native Thai students ?

2.2 What makes it difficult for you in communicating with your Thai students in the classroom ?

–Can you please give examples of the previous experiences ?

2.3 Have you had difficulties trying to understand Thai students' English accent ? Why or why not ?

2.4 When you did not understand or have a miscommunication with your Thai students, what did you do to maintain the conversation with them ? Please specify and give examples according to your experiences.

2.5 When you explain something to your students in classroom, how much you think they understand you ?Why ?

2.6 Have you noticed that the students in your class use nonverbal in order to explain or deliver their intended messages while engaging conversation with you ?

–Can you please give examples of nonverbal used by your students in the classroom ?

2.7 What factor causes miscommunication between you and your students ? Please specify.

3. Specific questions about communication strategies

3.1 Have you heard about the term 'communication strategies'? If so, can you please explain it according to your understanding?

3.2 Have you used/ applied communication strategies when communicating with your students in classes ?

3.3 Which communication strategies you find useful when communicating with your students ?

3.4 What communication strategies are often used/ applied by students ?Why ?

3.5 In your opinion, will communication strategy help improve Thai students communication in English with native English speakers ?

3.6 Would you recommend cross–cultural communication strategies to be used by other native English lecturers ? Why or why not ?

4. Specific questions regarding cultural issues

4.1 What's your attitude toward Thai culture in general ?

4.2 Have you adapted to Thai culture ?

4.3 Are there any cultural differences which make it difficult for you and your students to understand each other when communicating in the class ?

– What are those cultural issues, can you please elaborate more ?

Interview questions asking Thai lecturers

1. General questions regarding lecturers' background and teaching experiences

1.1 Can you please give some details about yourself - your nationality, where you grew up, your education background and specialization? ขอให้อาจารย์ช่วยให้ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับตัวเอง ภูมิลำเนา บ้านเกิด รวมไปถึงข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับการศึกษา วุฒิสูงสุดของอาจารย์ และ สายวิชาที่มีความเชี่ยวชาญ

1.2 Have you had experiences in teaching English prior teaching in the English department, Naresuan University? If so, please give more details about your experiences? ก่อนหน้าที่จะมาสอนที่ภาควิชาภาษาอังกฤษ ของมหาวิทยาลัยนเรศวร อาจารย์ได้มีประสบการณ์การสอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไหนมาบ้าง โปรดให้รายละเอียด

1.3 How many years have you been teaching English at the English department of Naresuan University?

อาจารย์สอนที่ภาควิชาภาษาอังกฤษ คณะมนุษยศาสตร์มาแล้วเป็นเวลากี่ปี

1.4 What courses are you teaching at the moment and to which group of students? Please explain.

อาจารย์ได้สอนรายวิชาใดบ้างในภาคการศึกษานี้ และ ให้กับนิสิตคณะและสาขาใดบ้าง

1.5 What's your opinion toward Thai students' proficiency of studying English? ในความคิดของอาจารย์ นักเรียนไทยมีความรู้ ความสามารถทางด้านภาษาอังกฤษ มากน้อยเพียงใด

- Can you give examples to support your opinion? ขอให้อาจารย์ช่วยยกตัวอย่างความรู้ความสามารถทางด้านภาษาอังกฤษของนิสิต เพื่อสนับสนุนความคิดของอาจารย์ด้วย

2. Specific questions regarding communicating/ teaching Thai students

2.1 How do you find teaching Thai students? อาจารย์ รู้สึกอย่างไรบ้างกับการสอนเด็กไทย

2.2 What makes it difficult for you in communicating with your Thai students in the classroom? อะไรที่เป็น ปัญหา หรือ อุปสรรค สำหรับอาจารย์ ในการที่จะสื่อสารกับสนิสิตในห้องเรียน

- Can you please give examples of the previous experiences? ขอให้ช่วยยกตัวอย่างประกอบด้วย

2.3 Have you had difficulties trying to understand messages that students convey in English? Why or why not? อาจารย์เคยประสบปัญหาในการที่จะพยายามเข้าใจข้อความภาษาอังกฤษที่นิสิตได้ถ่ายทอดออกมาหรือไม่ ถ้า ไม่เคย เพราะอะไร ถ้าเคย โปรดยกตัวอย่าง

2.4 When you did not understand your Thai student's message, what did you do to maintain the conversation with them? Please specify and give examples according to your experiences? ถ้าหากว่าอาจารย์ไม่เข้าใจสิ่งที่นิสิตพูดเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ อาจารย์ทำอย่างไรเพื่อที่จะทำให้การสนทนายังคงดำเนินต่อไป

2.5 When you explain something to your students in classroom, how much you think they understand you? Why ? ในขณะที่อธิบายบางสิ่ง ให้นิสิตฟังในชั้นเรียน อาจารย์คิดว่านิสิตเข้าใจมากน้อย ขนาดไหน ทำไมอาจารย์ถึงคิดว่าเป็นเช่นนั้น

2.6 Have you noticed that the students in your class use nonverbal in order to explain or deliver their intended messages while engaging conversation with you? อาจารย์เคยสังเกตไหมว่านิสิตในชั้นเรียนได้ใช้อวัจนภาษา ท่าทาง เพื่อที่จะอธิบาย หรือ ส่งข้อความที่ต้องการสื่อ อีกทั้งยังทำให้การสนทนายังดำเนินต่อไปได้

- Can you please give examples of nonverbal used by your students in the classroom? ขอให้อาจารย์ช่วยยกตัวอย่างการใช้ อวัจนภาษาที่นิสิตใช้ในห้องเรียนด้วยคะ

2.7 In your opinion, what elements assist the students to get their message across while having a conversation with you as their lecturer? Please specify. Why?

ในความคิดของอาจารย์ ปัจจัย อะไรบ้างที่มีส่วนช่วยให้ นิสิตเข้าใจข้อความภาษาอังกฤษ ในขณะที่สนทนากับอาจารย์อยู่ โปรดระบุ และ อธิบาย

3. Specific questions about communication strategies

3.1 Have you heard about the term 'communication strategies'? If so, can you please explain it according to your understanding? อาจารย์เคยได้ยินคำว่ากลยุทธ์ หรือ กลวิธีการสื่อสารหรือไม่ ถ้าเคยได้ยิน ขอให้ช่วยอธิบายตามความเข้าใจของอาจารย์

3.2 Have you used/ applied communication strategies when communicating with your students in classes ? อาจารย์ได้เคยใช้ หรือ ประยุกต์ใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสาร ในขณะที่สื่อสารกับนิสิตในชั้นเรียนหรือไม่

3.3 Which communication strategies you find useful when communicating with your students? อาจารย์คิดว่า กลวิธีการสื่อสารแบบไหนที่เป็นประโยชน์ ในขณะที่มีการสื่อสารกับนิสิต

- How did you obtain the ideas of the communication strategies applied with your students in class? Please explain. อาจารย์ได้แนวคิดกลยุทธ์ หรือ กลวิธีการสื่อสาร ที่ใช้กับนิสิตในห้องเรียนมาอย่างไร โปรดอธิบาย

3.4 Have you noticed that the students in your class used or applied communication strategies? What are they? อาจารย์เคยสังเกตไหมว่า นิสิตในชั้นเรียนได้ใช้หรือประยุกต์กลวิธีการสื่อสาร แล้วกลยุทธ์หรือ กลวิธีที่อาจารย์ได้เห็นจากนิสิตมีอะไรบ้าง

- Which communication strategies are frequently applied? Why? กลวิธีการสื่อสารที่อาจารย์มักจะใช้บ่อยๆมีอะไรบ้าง

3.5 In your opinion, do communication strategies help improve Thai students communication in English with native English speakers? Why or why not? ในความคิดของอาจารย์ กลวิธีหรือกลยุทธ์การสื่อสารข้างต้นช่วยพัฒนาการสื่อสารที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษของนิสิตชาวไทยกับเจ้าของภาษาหรือไม่ โปรดอธิบาย

3.6 Would you recommend communication strategies to be used by other lecturers including native English lecturers ? Why or why not? อาจารย์จะแนะนำให้อาจารย์ท่านอื่นๆ รวมไปถึง อาจารย์เจ้าของภาษาใช้กลยุทธ์ หรือ กลวิธีการสื่อสารหรือ ไม่ เพราะอะไร โปรดอธิบาย

4. Specific questions regarding cultural issues

4.1 What are the key elements of Thai culture that distinguish it from other cultures in terms of teaching and learning according to your experiences? อะไรคือปัจจัยสำคัญของวัฒนธรรมไทยที่มีความแตกต่างจากวัฒนธรรมอื่น ในรูปแบบของการเรียนการสอน ขอให้อาจารย์ช่วยยกตัวอย่างจากประสบการณ์ของอาจารย์

4.2 Do you think that some of the Thai student features which are seen as part of Thai culture - for example, students remain silent in class, they are being so laid back or not wanting to speak up can become issues between teacher and student communication in the Thai EFL classroom ? Please explain.

อาจารย์คิดว่าลักษณะของเด็กไทยที่เราได้เห็นกัน ยกตัวอย่างเช่น ความนิ่งเฉย และ เงียบ ไม่โต้ตอบในชั้นเรียน ความไม่กระตือรือร้น ไม่ซีเรียสกับการเรียน และ ความไม่อยากที่จะพูดและอภิปราย ส่งผลให้กลายเป็นปัญหาในการสื่อสารระหว่างอาจารย์ผู้สอนและนิสิตในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ หรือ ไม่ อย่างไร โปรดอธิบาย

Thai Student interview questions

1. General questions คำถามทั่วไป

1.1 What's your name ?กรุณาระบุชื่อของนักศึกษา

1.2 Where do you come from (hometown) ?บ้านเกิดอยู่ที่ไหนจังหวัดอะไร

1.3 What faculty / major are you studying ?ขณะนี้นิสิตกำลังศึกษาอยู่คณะไหนและสาขาอะไร

1.4 Why do you choose to study in this faculty or major ?นิสิตมีเหตุผลอย่างไรถึงได้เลือกที่เรียนที่คณะและสาขาที่กำลังศึกษาอยู่

1.4 What do you want to do after you graduate from Naresuan University ?นิสิตอยากประกอบอาชีพหรือทำงานอะไรหลังจากจบการศึกษาแล้ว

2. Specific questions of subject / English course taken.

2.1 What's your attitude toward English subject in general ?นิสิตมีทัศนคติต่อวิชาภาษาอังกฤษโดยทั่วไปๆอย่างไร

2.2 What's your attitude toward your current English courses ?นิสิตมีทัศนคติต่อวิชาภาษาอังกฤษที่เรียนอยู่ในขณะนี้อย่างไรบ้าง

2.3 Have your grade improved in this current English subject you have studied ? เกรดของนิสิตในรายวิชาภาษาอังกฤษที่นิสิตเรียนอยู่ขณะนี้มีการปรับปรุงขึ้นหรือไม่

– Were you satisfied with your grade ? Why or why not ?นิสิตรู้สึกพอใจกับเกรดของตนเองในรายวิชาภาษาอังกฤษที่กำลังศึกษาอยู่หรือไม่

3. Specific questions regarding communicating with English lecturers

3.1 Have you studied with native English lecturers/ teachers prior this current one ?นิสิตเคยได้เรียนกับครูหรืออาจารย์ชาวต่างชาติในวิชาภาษาอังกฤษก่อนหน้าวิชาภาษาอังกฤษที่เรียนอยู่ในขณะนี้หรือไม่

Note : By ‘native English speaker’ is meant a speaker who has come from a country where English is the national language.

3.2 How do you find the classroom atmosphere in your class ?

3.3 How do you find studying with your current native English lecturer ?Why ?

3.4 Have you had difficulties trying to understand your native English lecturer’s accent ?

3.5 When you were in the lectures, did you express your feelings, thoughts, give feedback or respond to your lecturers? Why or why not ?

3.6 Do you have problem communicating with your lecturer ? If so, can you give examples of problems/ issues which occurred previously?

3.7 How do you feel when your lecturer asks you to speak out in class or respond to his/her questions? Why ?

3.8 When you did not understand or have a miscommunication with your native English lecturers, what did you do in order to deliver your intended messages as well as to make them understand ?(Can you please give some examples ?)

3.9 Do you often use nonverbal (face expression, gestures, mime) when communicating with your native English lecturers?

– What nonverbal do you use?

3.10 What factors influence miscommunication between you and your lecturer? Please specify?

4. Specific questions about communication strategies

4.1 Have you heard about the term ‘communication strategies’ ? If so, can you please clarify it according to your understanding?

4.2 Are you aware that you are using communication strategies while you are communicating with your native English lecturers in your class?

4.3 Do you think communication strategies help you to convey your messages or what you wanted to say to your native English lecturers ?

4.4 What communication strategies would be useful to you ? Why do you suggest this (these) ?

Appendix C :

An example of main study observational schedule.

Teacher's name :……. Course name :…….

Date:……. Time :……

Lesson Time (Minute)	Activities	Turn of talks **(T – S) (S – T) (S – S)**	**Dialogue**	Notes (other strategies found / cultural issues, cultural artifacts used in class)
00.00 – 2.30				
2.31 – 5.00				
5.01 – 7.30				

Appendix D :

Quotes taken from the interview of teachers and students in chapter 4

Section 4.2.1.1 *Meanings of cross–cultural communication strategies or communication strategies (according to Thai students)*

> In my opinion, communication strategies are a method or an approach in communication for individuals. My communication method is to approach the teacher. It's like I go to talk to him, something like this. (J4–of NEL2, a first year student majoring in International Business Management)

> Um, I have heard of this term but I do not quite understand its meaning. I think it is about communication, something like that. It's like Thai culture is different from other foreign cultures; for example, costume etc. (J1–of NEL1, a first year student majoring in International Business)

> I have never heard about communication strategies. Therefore, my strategy is copying words. For example, when I found a word in newspapers, I will try to translate its meaning then copy or memorise how to use it… (M3–of NT3, a 3rd year student majoring in Political Science)

Section 4.2.1.2 *Cross–cultural communication strategies or communication strategies employed by teachers and students in the EFL classroom.*

An llustration of CCCs applied by NL2 according to a student's opinion.

> They help a lot…At the moment; the teacher begins to speak slower so I can catch main ideas of what he is talking about. He also illustrates more examples. (J1, a first year student majoring in International Business)

Section 4.2.1.2.2 *Students' perspective on CCC(s) or CS(s) implementation*

> During the first period, I encountered misunderstanding as a problem in communication with him. I do not know what other people do but I use hand gestures: use hands doing different figures or pictures. Sometimes, I show him some pictures from a smartphone regarding what I wanted to

say to him… (J4–of NEL2, a first year student majoring in International Business Management)

An illustration of language switch

If the teacher still doesn't understand me, I will speak to him in Thai. I might say something in English, for example, "teacher, excuse me, this choice", something like that. I sometimes speak English and Thai interchangeably. (M2–of NT3, a 3rd year student majoring in Law)

Illustrations of asking friends for assistance

In this class, I ask my friend. I do not talk to the teacher directly…If I do get an answer from my friend but it's not clear enough, I will ask the teacher out loud. (D1– of NT4, a 4th year student majoring in Political Science)

…I think friends are very important for me because he or she can explain things very quickly and easy to understand. (D4,–of NT4, a 2nd year student majoring in Tourism)

Section 4.2.2.2 Reasons for applying CCCs and CS according to Thai students' opinions.

I think these help us a lot. That's because using actions, showing pictures can give a clear picture of a situation, something like that…so I think using verbal plus actions can get him to understand messages or what we wanted to convey to him in English. If I am with many friends, I will do a role play to show him. It is like we are imitating a scenario…(S1– of native English lecturer no.1, a 2nd year student majoring in Public Health)

Section 4.2.3.1 ***Thai student opinions on factors influencing miscommunication***

An example of quote demonstrating students' perception regarding teacher–student attitudes.

> What influences miscommunication, I think it is 'attitude'. The teacher thinks this way; but we, as students think differently so there is miscommunication…I think that probably the knowledge level, attitudes or age gaps can create miscommunication.(D1– of Thai lecturer no.4, a 4th year student majoring in Political Science)

An example of quote illustrating students' perception of cultural different in the Thai EFL classroom.

> Miscommunication comes err…from language features…we speak different language, thus, when he speaks with us, we do not get every single word. I think perhaps culture can be part of it. Our teacher is always on time. Sometimes, he said to us to come to class at this time so that our attendance can be checked. On the other hand, Thai culture is much more flexible, we can be late for class. As a result, this can lead to misunderstanding. (S1– of native English lecturer no.1, a 2nd year student majoring in Public Health)

An example of quote presenting students' perception of background experience as a factor caused miscommunication.

> I think it might be 'background experiences of individuals and their surroundings. To illustrate, the teacher probably has his/her own environments or surroundings regarding English studies. They can speak English with other teachers. Whereas, students do not have chances to practise speaking English after the class…as a result, they cannot memorise anything which leads to misunderstanding. (M3– of Thai lecturer no.3, a 3rd year student majoring in Political Science)

Section 4.2.3.1 ***Thai student opinions on factors influencing miscommunication***

Quotes from teachers exhibiting several elements leading to effective communication in Thai classroom.

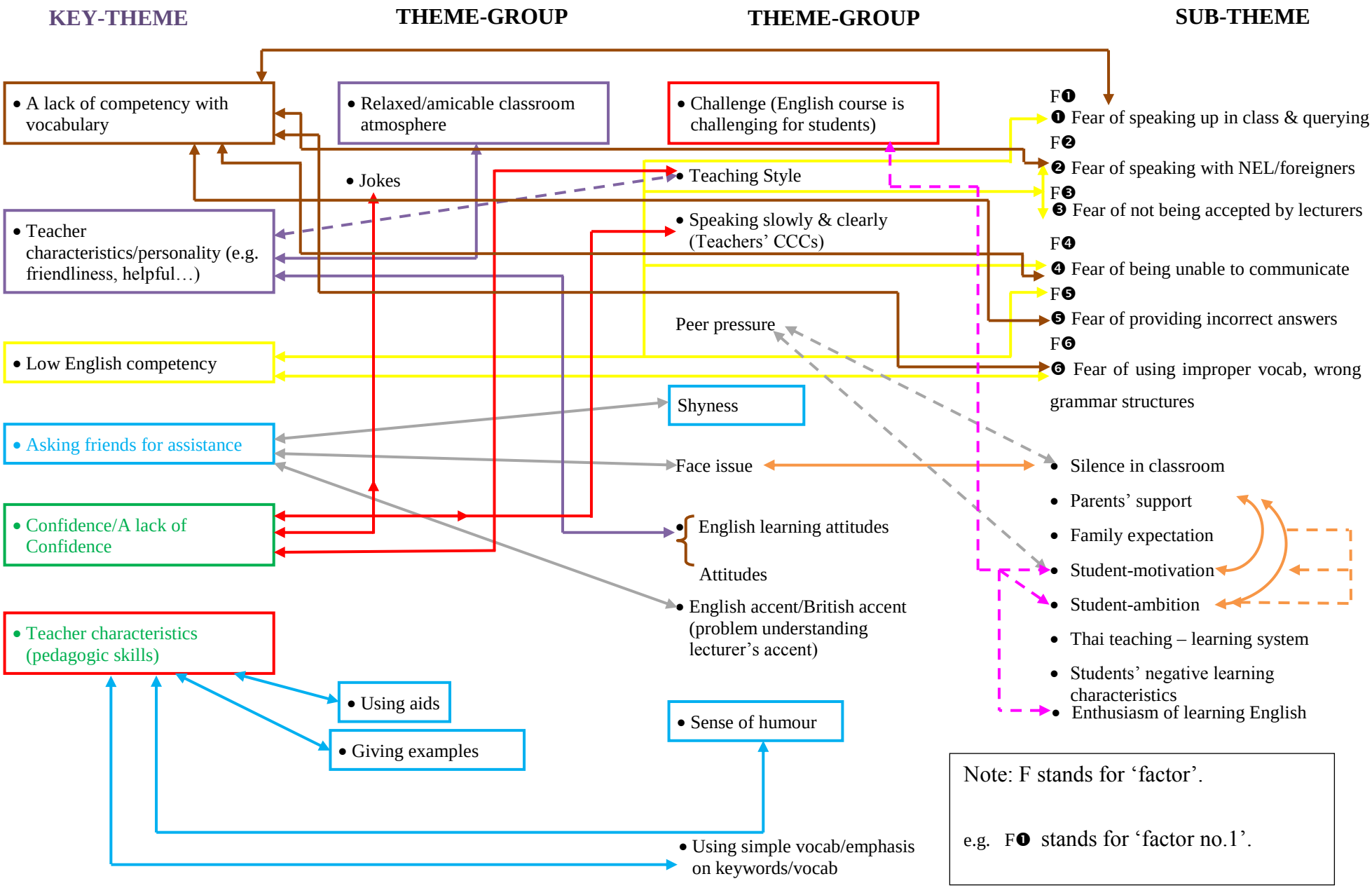
> Yes, an element is teaching aids. For example, when I talk about something, I will show students a picture related to that topic in order to get students to understand the topic. Apart from that, I also write something on the whiteboard for students to see then they get to hear those sentences again. Therefore, they will understand them better and that we are on the same page. (Thai lecturer no.3)

Quotes from students confirming teacher's pedagogical skills; using the sense of humour

> …His teaching is fun and not having too much about academic aspects. When he teaches, he knows when to pause. Besides, he has sense of humours as to make the class fun, not boring. (J3– of native English lecturer no.2, a first year student majoring in International Business)

> He is a lovely and seems like a kind person. His teaching is easy to understand–to demonstrate, he speaks in slow pace. He always gets us to continue practising English skills such as practising pronunciation– how this word is pronounced, something like this…(S3– of native English lecturer no.1, a 2nd year student majoring in Civil Engineering)

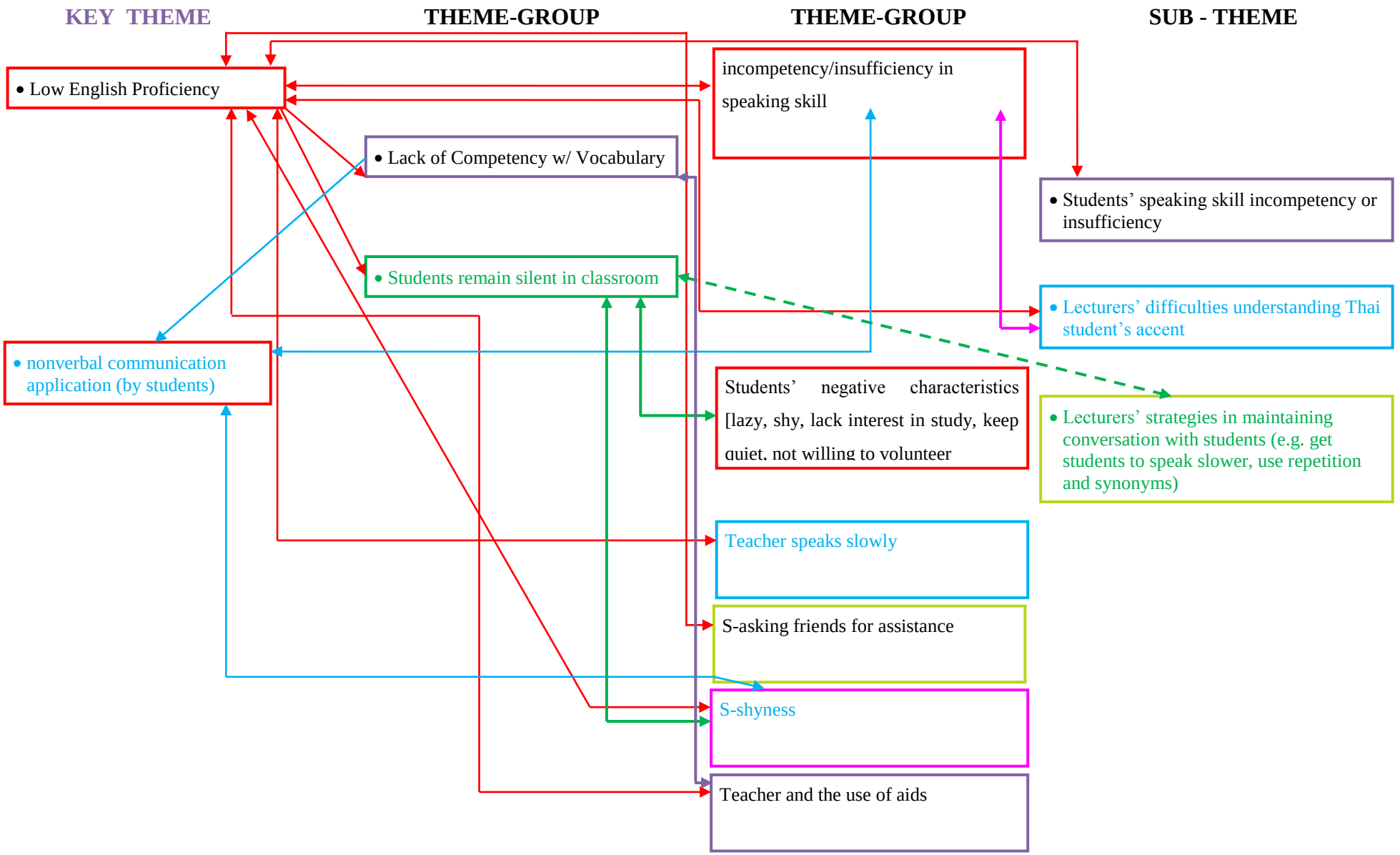
Appendix E : A list of themes that emerged from Thai student interviews of the main study.



Note: F stands for 'factor'.

e.g. F❶ stands for 'factor no.1'.

Appendix F : A list of themes that emerged from teacher interviews of the main study.



Appendix G : A list of themes that emerged from Thai student interviews of the main study (related to CCCs and CSs)